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Educational News and Editorial Comment

ENROLMENT IN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

The recently published *Statistical Survey of Education, 1925–1926* (Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 12, 1928) contains the following statement regarding enrolment in high schools.

The greatest increase is in secondary-school enrolments. This amounts to 1,055 per cent from 1890 to 1926. The enrolment for the base year, 1890, is perhaps not quite complete for secondary schools, but the deficiency is offset in large measure by the fact that a few schools enrolled some elementary pupils in their high-school departments. It is believed that the number of elementary pupils included accounts approximately for incomplete reports of secondary pupils. The curve has the general appearance of a constant ratio increase—that is, something similar to a compound-interest curve—up to and including 1922. A break occurs after 1922 and a still further break after 1924.

It must be remembered that junior high school pupils below the traditional ninth grade are not included in computing these increases. Only enrolments in regular high-school grades are included throughout the whole period. Enrolments, therefore, are computed upon the same bases for each period, and the regularity of the curve can be taken to indicate rather definite trends. Secondary schools now enrol about 53 per cent of those of secondary-school age and still have room to grow, but the indication is that the rate of growth from now on will constantly decrease provided social and economic factors remain relatively as at present. The elements involved are so variable that any forecast is subject to much revision.

In recent years there has been a tendency to include the upper elementary grades with the high-school grades and to reorganize these into junior and senior schools and departments. These reorganized schools have had a wonderful growth. There were 3,058 such schools and departments in 1926.

CONFERENCES OF HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association has appointed a committee the function of which is to stimulate the investigation of high-school problems. The personnel of the committee is as follows: professors of secondary education: Jesse B. Davis, Charles H. Judd (chairman), L. V. Koos, and William Proctor; members of state departments of education: W. M. Bristow, A. B. Meredith, and Samuel M. North; superintendents of schools: W. F. Ewing and Frank G. Pickell; high-school principals: Francis L. Bacon, V. K. Froula, L. W. Smith, and Milo Stuart.

In fulfilling its commission, this committee has addressed letters to some forty prominent secondary-school officers and has suggested a number of concrete problems which might be studied by groups of high-school principals. It is hoped that experiments will be inaugurated in different parts of the country and that at some time in the future the results of these experiments will be assembled and made the basis of a more completely systematized organization of high schools. The committee has not exhausted the possibilities of group organization of principals in the letters which it has sent out. High-school principals are invited to join this movement whether they received special letters or not. The circular describing the plan is as follows:

The Committee on Organization of Investigations in Secondary Education is undertaking the organization of a number of centers of discussion and investigation. The plan is to stimulate high-school principals in some forty or fifty parts of the country to organize themselves into clubs which will meet once a month during the school year and conduct co-operative inquiries into some of the problems which are of general interest to all high-school officers.

The committee is sending this statement to about forty selected secondary-school officers with the request that they organize local groups. The local groups are then asked to take up co-operative work on problems such as are outlined in the following paragraphs.

1. *A study of large and small classes.*—Each principal should organize at least one large class and should visit it at least three times a month for a full

session each time with a view to discovering the methods of work which are appropriate and successful in dealing with large classes. Tests of classes should be made, and comparisons should be made between large and small classes. The members of a particular group should report their findings to one another for several months and should then formulate a general report based on their discussions.

2. *High-school records.*—The Department of Secondary-School Principals has a committee working on uniform personnel blanks. The movement to unify reports must be carried farther in order to render possible valid comparisons of schools. The members of a particular group could profitably seek to unify their procedures and their reports by comparison of their financial records, their pupil-accounting plans, and their faculty records. The movement could then be extended to include several centers and finally a large number of schools.

3. *Methods of judging the merits of teachers.*—The proper estimation of teachers can be accomplished only when the best practices of many principals are systematically criticized after being applied to many cases. The procedure in this inquiry could be similar to the procedures described in the preceding paragraphs.

Other topics may be mentioned. There are problems of curriculum revision and of building construction. There are vital problems of financial administration.

The committee suggests that the local groups take up one or more of the projects here outlined. It will be helpful to the committee to have the local groups report to the chairman the particular studies which they expect to undertake. The committee will also welcome suggestions as to other matters which appeal to any group as significant. The committee will act as a center of communication and will send out bulletins from time to time to all local groups which report to the chairman.

EDUCATIONAL EFFICIENCY AND SIZE OF CLASS

Several members of the faculty of the University of Minnesota have been experimenting to determine what effect, if any, the size of a class has on the efficiency of instruction. In some cases they varied the size of the classes and kept the method of instruction constant; in a few cases they varied the methods of teaching with a view to adapting instruction to large classes. The results of the experiments are fully described in a book by Professor Earl Hudelson issued by the University of Minnesota Press under the title *Class Size at the College Level.*

The general summary of the findings as formulated by Professor Hudelson is as follows:

No exhaustive investigation of the relation of instructional techniques to class size at the university level has yet been made. Every controlled attempt at the University of Minnesota to adapt instruction to the size of the class has resulted in superior achievement from the larger sections. Such modifications in teaching methods as have been tried have failed to affect achievement significantly in either the large or the small classes.

However anomalous it may sound, it seems to be true in the experiments thus far completed that the better opportunity for teacher-student contact in small classes retards progress. The students, particularly the weaker ones, in the small sections tend to lean too heavily upon their instructors instead of trying to dig things out for themselves. There is a suggestion that some of their trouble may arise from poor attention due to a belief that, if they miss the point the first time, the instructor will repeat it upon request. The more impersonal relationship between students and instructor in large classes would naturally discourage such a habit. At any rate, the large classes set the pace.

The results of the series of experiments in Education 15, in which exclusive techniques of teaching were varied while all other factors were kept as constant as possible, suggest that instructional procedures in either large or small classes may not be as influential as is commonly supposed and that the value of student participation may be overrated.

The variations in teaching methods in the controlled experiments in physics under two different instructors failed to affect the superior results achieved by the larger classes.

Of course, it does not follow from the experiments at the University of Minnesota that class size is a matter of indifference at all levels of education. It may be that college students are less affected by classroom conditions than are the less mature pupils of the high school and the elementary school. However, until experiments equally as exhaustive as those tried at the University of Minnesota prove that it is dangerous to increase the size of classes, there must be grave doubts regarding the validity of the conventional standard of thirty pupils per class. The economic advantages of grouping pupils in large classes are so great that school administrators are under obligation to experiment with the possibility of reducing expenses by increasing the size of classes.

JUNIOR VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

When the junior high school was new and untried, objection was raised to its organization by certain educators because they were afraid that this institution would become a trade school and

that it would stand in the way of an academic education for many pupils. It is interesting to note that after fifteen years of trial the junior high school is now objected to by some on the ground that it does not furnish, as they think it should, sufficient practical training to satisfy the needs of many pupils. According to the *New York Sun*, a number of junior vocational schools are to be organized in New York City. The full statement is as follows:

A new type of vocational school, which was first requested by a committee of Brooklyn principals and later indorsed by the Board of Superintendents, is to be established. It will be known as the "junior vocational school" and will occupy the same place in the field of vocational training that the junior high school does in the academic field.

Two of the junior vocational schools are to be established next year in accordance with an appropriation made in the 1929 budget estimate by the Board of Education. At the same time a survey of the entire field of vocational education in this city is to be undertaken by the Board of Superintendents at the request of the Board of Education's budget committee.

The result will probably be an extension of the junior vocational school idea. Moreover, there is a possibility that the work of the central continuation schools will be extended to the point where they will be virtual trade schools.

In setting aside funds for the organization of the junior vocational schools next year, the budget committee had a clear idea of the type of students these schools are to serve. It expressed its ideas in the following language.

"The committee believes that vocational training has not been given the attention which the necessities of the times and the needs of our young people demand and therefore has asked the superintendent of schools to make a complete survey of this field during the following year.

"In the meantime, to cover a definite need which is obvious at the moment, it is recommended that two junior vocational schools be established to offer vocational training to those pupils in the sixth, seventh, and eighth years who cannot profit by the usual academic type of instruction. Such children are usually over-age. They do not fit into the regular course of study, and some fall into habits of truancy or juvenile delinquency. If they go to the high school, they usually do not succeed and drop out, and they have to seek employment without proper training. In these junior vocational schools it is proposed to relate the academic work almost wholly to the vocational courses, with other stress only on such academic subjects as English and civics."

The Board of Superintendents has given considerable thought to the junior vocational school problem and has already approved a tentative plan of organization. This was suggested by Dr. Gustave Straubenmüller, whose report read in part as follows:

"The junior high school should have an auditorium, two gymnasiums, and

shops. Naturally, the ordinary eight-year-school building has only a woodworking shop. There must, therefore, be room in the building for additional shops.

"There must be a sufficient number of VIII B schools in the neighborhood from which seventh- and eighth-year pupils may be sent to junior high school. It is understood that in organizing a central school as a junior high school the surrounding eight-year schools must be decapitated and become schools with classes from the kindergarten through Grade VI B. In exchange for the seventh-year pupils which these schools lose they will receive the third-, fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-year pupils from the central school. The eighth-year pupils will remain in the old school until they shall have been graduated."

CHARTS SHOWING THE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT

The *United States Daily*, 22d and M Streets, Washington, D.C., has for some time past printed charts showing the organization of the different branches of the federal government. It has now brought all these charts together in a supplement, *Organization of the United States Government*, which can be purchased for twenty-five cents a copy or for less if a number of copies are sent to a single address.

The supplement is recommended to teachers of civics and of history as valuable material for classroom use. The charts have been prepared by persons thoroughly familiar with the various branches of the government, and they give authentic information which is not elsewhere available in so compact and usable a form.

In the immediate future there is certain to be much discussion of the changes in organization which are necessary in order to promote economy and efficiency in the operations of the central government. Both of the candidates for the presidency have made emphatic pronouncements in favor of such changes. It will be altogether timely, therefore, for classes which are becoming acquainted with the structure of government to consider in detail the various departments, commissions, and independent boards which make up the machinery of national control at Washington.

ECONOMY OF TIME THROUGH REORGANIZATION

The *Columbia Missourian* published the following editorial entitled "A New Education Plan."

I. I. Cammack, superintendent emeritus of the Kansas City public schools, is suggesting a tentative change in the system there which would eliminate two of the fourteen years now necessary to complete an education including the first two years of college.

Junior college and the last year of the present high-school course would be combined under this scheme, which may be considered by the Kansas City Board of Education after Mr. Cammack's return this fall from California.

The change would eventually mean that there would be six years of elementary-school work, three years of junior high school, and three of combined high school and junior college.

Among the advantages said to be found in the plan, one is that it is more economical. The buildings and equipment used in the latter part of high school are practically the same as those used in junior colleges; thus a combination would save duplication of plants. Students, it is claimed, get in two years less time an equal amount of work, with a resultant saving for the parents.

Another advantage, certainly, would be reflected in the improvement of universities and senior colleges, which might then devote funds and faculty to the development of the best in advanced training. Certainly the University of Missouri would profit under such a plan.

It might also eliminate some of the aimlessness and confusion which high-school and even college students usually have as to choice of curriculum and future courses.

On the other hand, such a system might tempt many students who now have four years of high school to quit at the end of the three-year junior high school. But, if they did bridge this gap, they would be more likely, probably, to go on through the whole of the next three years.

Our present system has its flaws, admittedly, and any innovations which sound as practical as this does are worth consideration and possibly some experimentation.

TEACHING AIDS PROCURABLE WITHOUT COST

Professor Homer J. Smith, of the Department of Industrial Education of the University of Minnesota, has published through the University of Minnesota Press a pamphlet entitled *Teaching Aids for the Asking*. The price of this publication is fifty cents. It contains sixty pages. A part of the Foreword, in which Professor Smith explains the purpose of the pamphlet and the method which he adopted in securing his materials, is as follows:

A major difficulty experienced by teachers of the newer and less formal school subjects is the lack of teaching materials. Classroom work in geography and science can be made engaging and effective to the degree that there is at

hand fresh and authentic illustrative material, in form convenient for the student's use.

"Exploratory courses," likewise, within the field of industrial education, although contributing to numerous ends, cannot be excellent when they fail to stress sources of raw materials, manufacturing processes, and the properties and uses of finished goods. Even trade training as attempted by schools of the future will doubtless be limited more and more closely to the teaching of "related" truths and principles derived from the realities of the situations in which the students expect to work. Industrial instruction must swing toward information, and understanding, and appreciation.

The following lists were compiled in keeping with these wants and needs and in the hope that with their help teaching may be made easier and learning made more certain and satisfying. *More than seven hundred firms were asked to submit for examination such booklets, job sheets, wall charts, etc., as they might have prepared for distribution as educational advertising. It was suggested that only such publications be sent as have educational merit and which would be mailed to teachers upon request.* The responses were prompt and cordial. There was general expression of desire to co-operate with the schools, and there was frequent statement of willingness to make special preparation of what might be useful for classes.

The possibilities in this direction have been by no means exhausted. The number of fields could have been extended and each list carried to much greater length. The writer chose merely to compile a list sufficiently extensive to be of some immediate service to the average teacher and suggestive to him of what he can do for himself and for his students.

All materials received were carefully examined in the light of educational objectives. About one-third was discarded, and what finds place here has been judged worthy of school use. Much correspondence was exchanged, which resulted chiefly in the omission of small sums named as necessary to cover costs of printing and mailing. The list is now remarkably free from such notations, and where charges are announced they are exceedingly modest for the materials furnished.

THE UNSOCIAL STUDENT

In a recent issue of the *California Monthly*, a publication issued by the students of the University of California at Los Angeles, Professor Shepherd Ivory Franz, professor of psychology in that institution and one of the leading psychiatrists in the country, published an article entitled "The Problem of the Unsocial Student." He describes a number of cases and comments on them. One of the cases is discussed as follows:

I have a difficult student problem to solve at the present time, and the solution is far from apparent. She is a Sophomore, who has done none too well in her academic studies. She has taken courses in the social sciences, languages, biology, and has selected history as a major subject without much consideration other than the advice of her family. Her father retired from a successful business career a few years ago and is now occupying his time dabbling in real-estate operations. An only sister is a university graduate, who has entered upon a business career. Our student says she has no more than a passing interest in her major subject and no more in any other topic. She admits that her work is a bore, imposed upon her by her parents because of their social-financial position, and she reports that she does not associate with any student on the campus although some of her fellow high-school students are registered in her classes. She attends the University at times when her classes are scheduled; she leaves as soon as she can. She talks with no one about her studies, which are reported to be conscientiously worked over but ineffectually. She has no "boy friends" within or without the University. She reads novels, especially love stories; she attends the "movies" only occasionally; she never goes to a dance. When asked if she could drive an automobile, she admitted that she liked to "put her foot on the gas." She told how she drove over sixty miles per hour until her family objected too strenuously and how she was arrested once for driving at the rate of forty-two miles in a fifteen-mile zone. She then sighed that her father turned in the car the next day on a new purchase which the dealer insisted was not to be driven faster than twenty miles per hour. She would like to go on a trip of the Floating University, but she knew her family would not permit it. She was, however, resigned to her fate, both with her unromantic humdrum family and with the uninteresting university topics and instructors.

The girl is unadjusted because she is unsocial, but there is no evidence of mental disease. Her parents now realize that she is a misfit, and they are willing to do whatever is advised. The student is a psychological problem in which there are so many unknown quantities that it can be solved only with a thorough knowledge of the methods of solving mental equations of the nth order. This knowledge I do not now have. I am groping and trying out various measures in a trial-and-error fashion. The greatest difficulty arises because the girl does not volunteer information; each item must be laboriously dug out of highly resisting mental rock.

The case is interesting from a number of angles. It is cited mainly because it illustrates an extreme of social maladjustment. There are elements in the case which are found in lesser degree in many others: all childhood desires inhibited by an unimaginative family, no outlet for romantic fantasy except the reading of novels, personally judged values uncorrected by conversational contacts with extra-family individualities. Her interests have been suppressed. They have not been developed, and altered, by larger social contacts. The lack of proper social control is the cause of the intellectual difficulty.

THE EXPERIMENTAL COLLEGE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

The following statement was issued by the University of Wisconsin.

Life, thought, and organization of modern America will be the subject into which Sophomores will delve this year in the Experimental College, University of Wisconsin.

All students available from the Freshman class of last year, which was the first year of operation of the new college under the leadership of Dr. Alexander Meiklejohn, have already reserved rooms in the dormitories. Registration of the new Freshman class, in which probably not more than 130 can be enrolled, is now in progress.

The Freshman course of study will again be concerned with Athenian civilization, according to announcements.

"This year's experiment has at least made certain the fact that the Greek literature contains the materials which can be used in the building up of liberal understanding and appreciation," states a new bulletin of the college. "The advisers have no sense of final achievement in their use of the Greek material for teaching purposes. Rather they are impressed by its possibilities. They are convinced that the American Freshman can find in it stimulus and direction and information and insight if he will study it properly. It is the task of the adviser to help the student to do his studying properly. Upon that task we shall be engaged in the coming year.

"Advisers, new and old, will be divided into two groups, one of which will take charge of Freshman conferences, and the other will direct the Sophomore studies. It seems to us that, after the intellectual awakening which we hope to get from the Greek studies, it is best to take the student to his own country and civilization in recent times.

"The Sophomore group of advisers is confident that all the intellectual and moral and aesthetic elements in the human situation which appear so vividly in the Greek setting are to be found in their different settings in the development of a new civilization in the United States. The second year of our course will be devoted to a continuation nearer home of the endeavor which has begun far away and in a strange land."

Emphasis has been laid on the purpose to have students study situations rather than subjects, to study the human experiment as it may be seen in representative episodes, and to try to understand present civilization by studying first an ancient civilization and then a modern one.

Instructors are known as "advisers." There is close contact between advisers and students. The Experimental College is a small college within the university. It is a part of the College of Letters and Science, and, like other schools and colleges on the campus, it takes part in the general work of the university.

ACTIVITIES OF TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS

The *New York Sun* has published an account of activities undertaken by teachers' associations in various parts of the country. The following statement indicates ways in which organized groups can contribute to the advantage of individual members.

Group insurance is being taken out by teachers' organizations in many parts of the country, it is reported by the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association. The last issue of the departmental bulletin says that within the last year group-insurance arrangements have been made by the Birmingham Teachers Association, the Chicago High School Teachers Club, the Cincinnati Teachers Association, the Cleveland Federation, the Dayton Classroom Teachers Association, the Minneapolis Teachers League, the Norfolk Teachers Association, the Pittsburgh Teachers Association, and the Seattle Grade Teachers Club.

Numerous other co-operative enterprises are carried on by teachers' organizations. The example of the Brooklyn Teachers Association in arranging excursions and tours across the country and to Europe is followed by many. Band concerts, theater parties, and benefit teas are among the activities sponsored.

The Pittsburgh Teachers Association recently gave a musical tea for the purpose of raising funds for maintaining the Hannah Martin Home for Convalescent and Retired Teachers of Allegheny County. The guests included many of the leading women of the city of Pittsburgh, reports the bulletin.

The Minneapolis Teachers League sponsored a concert by the United States Navy Band, which was on tour last November. The net profits to the organization were about $900.

The Los Angeles City Teachers Club maintains a mountain cabin situated in one of the beauty spots of southern California, offering opportunity for rest and recuperation over a week-end or during vacation. The cabin is furnished to accommodate eight persons. A small fee is paid for its use.

The Milwaukee Teachers Association has a committee at work studying the question of a sabbatical leave and has submitted a report with recommendations to the Board of School Directors. This association also sponsors each year a lecture course, bringing to the city representative speakers not only from this country but from abroad.

The Akron Teachers Association played an important part in the passage of a five-mill school-tax levy by furnishing facts which were broadcast over the radio and flashed on the screens of the various theaters of the city. This same organization has established a loan fund for teachers to be put into operation as soon as the details for the administration of it can be worked out.

The Cleveland Teachers Federation sponsors an annual play night. This year it will be a cabaret dance at the Public Auditorium, with an estimated attendance of five thousand.

SOCIAL-SCIENCE AND COMMERCIAL COURSES

In an article published in the *United States Daily*, J. O. Malott, specialist in commercial education in the United States Bureau of Education, points out certain tendencies which have appeared in recent times in the high-school curriculum to amalgamate commercial courses and courses in social science. He also expresses the idea that these tendencies are disadvantageous when the resulting courses are designed for the preparation of commercial workers. His statement is in part as follows:

Much progress has been made during the biennium toward the development of definite and worthy objectives for commercial education. Clear and convincing distinctions have been made between remote economic objectives for society and immediate vocational objectives for the individual.

The remote objective, which pertains to the development of business in harmony with the best interests of society, has received much attention by the leaders in business and by the leaders in university education for business. More progress has been made than in any similar period toward removing the confusion that has characterized the immediate objective, preparation of individuals with different interests, aptitudes, and abilities for appropriate levels of vocational opportunities in business.

As the disciplinary objectives for commercial subjects declined in popularity there was a tendency throughout the country to substitute the social-science objectives. The new objectives were welcomed for those subjects pertaining to the laws and principles of commerce. Because of the traditional prejudice against vocational objectives, the social-science objectives are frequently urged, even for the subjects pertaining to definite business training.

Many factors have contributed to the confusion between the social-science and the vocational objectives. First, there is a need in the social sciences for more economic and business content. Second, in the selection of content for the commercial subjects it is necessary to begin where the social sciences cease. Adequate preparation for office and store positions requires considerably more content bordering on the social sciences than is ordinarily included in the core of those subjects. Preparation for commercial occupations requires the application of much of the social-science content to the performance of specific duties. Third, there is much similarity between many of the vocational activities and those of everyday life. Some of the vocational content and common skills taught in the commercial subjects have everyday utilitarian and social values, but these values are incidental by-products due to the nature of preparation for commercial occupations instead of arbitrary planning. It is obvious that the present problem of differentiating social-science content from the vocational content is fully as important for the social sciences as for commercial education. A solution of the problem is essential to permanent progress in commercial education.

This statement brings vividly to attention a fact which has appeared not only in the field of commercial education but also in the field of industrial education. There is no adequate intellectual content in practical courses unless these courses are extended so as to include theory as well as training in practical skills. There is no possibility of turning the school into a shop or a business office without destroying the essential educative character of the institution. The school is a place where practical skill is intellectualized, where the mind is cultivated at the same time that the hand and the eye are trained. It is the belief of the writer that commercial courses would be improved by being combined as intimately as possible with strong courses in the fundamental social sciences.

EXAMINATIONS IN ENGLAND

School officers in the North Central states, where the certificate plan of admission to college is common, often hear criticisms of the workings of this plan. From time to time some critic of the certificate system who finds that certificates are admitting great numbers of students to college suggests a return to the entrance examination. Examinations as a basis for the transfer of pupils from one institution to another were imported from England, where they are still extensively used. The New England colleges and the colleges in many of the eastern states continue to administer entrance examinations and only reluctantly consider the possibility of joining the colleges of the North Central states in the acceptance of certificates.

In view of the discussion which is going on in this country, it is especially interesting to note what English educators think of the examination plan. The leading article in a recent issue of the London *Times Educational Supplement* discusses one phase of the problem, which is at present agitating educators in England. Some paragraphs from this article are as follows:

> It is almost inviting trouble nowadays to discuss the vexed question of examinations for schools, but the question is one which has to be faced and one to which, if education in England is to develop on generous lines, some reasonable solution must be found. There is today not one system of external examinations which is not being fiercely criticized. To take but one example—the most notorious—that of the first-school certificate, the secondary schools may without exaggeration be said to be groaning under its weight. That the secondary schools have received profit from the first-school certificate examination, no one will

deny, but unfortunately the system has taken charge of the schools instead of the schools taking charge of the system. Those of us who are particularly interested in the development of the new modern schools are gravely concerned that the same fate shall not overtake them. "The New Prospect in Education" has sounded a warning on this point which we shall do well not to neglect:

"Arising out of the question of curriculum [it says], there is the even more difficult problem of examination. . . . . Unless the problem is faced in time by the wise and thoughtful, it may be solved or prejudiced in a premature and unwise fashion."

There is obviously no time to be lost. First, we may ask, Is it necessary to have examinations at all in these schools? There is a considerable school of thought which remains determinedly opposed to all external examinations, and certainly, as examinations go at present, there is something to be said for that point of view. External examinations in England do dominate the curriculum; they do narrow it; they do glorify knowledge at the expense of wisdom and skill; they do forbid experiment; they do limit freedom; they do inhibit creative activity. Can we not, then, do without them?

The answer is probably not; almost certainly not under present conditions. Even if it were absolutely proved that the disadvantages of external examinations outweigh the advantages, it would be impossible to convert in a moment all the parents, the employers, and the teachers who so firmly believe in them. . . . .

The purpose of the institution of an external examination is to avoid certificates given by individual schools, the value of which must vary enormously. If there is to be a leaving certificate for modern schools obtainable on examination, that certificate must cover the practical subjects as well as the more academic. In this connection it must be remembered that all the subjects in the modern-school curriculum are to be attacked in more practical fashion than is usual in present-day secondary schools and that the so-called "practical" subjects will not therefore be a class apart but merely those subjects in which manual skill is the dominant factor.

Is there, after all, one may ask, so much more difficulty in measuring proficiency in say woodwork than in measuring proficiency in English? Has a satisfactory test of one's knowledge of and skill in the use of the English language ever been devised? How does one judge literary appreciation? Is it harder to assess the value of an artistic composition, of a water color, for example, than to assess the value of a piece of free composition in English prose, or of a reasoned answer to a history question demanding knowledge and judgment? One can, indeed, imagine a board of examiners finding it comparatively simple (and under favorable circumstances even pleasant) to decide upon the proficiency of a cooking class by the expedient of tasting the cooked products.

But are we right in examining all sorts of proficiencies one by one? Is it not possible that our present method of examining subject by subject, adding the results together, and calling the agglomeration a whole may be radically wrong?

In the first-school examination cases occur every year in which pupils obtain distinction in one or more subjects and yet fail on the whole examination. Are we right in failing these pupils?

At this point the advocates of intelligence tests will no doubt wish to enter the argument. What we really wish to find out, they will say, is the power of the pupils' intelligence. A few years ago this answer was accepted unhesitatingly, and it was assumed in many quarters that intelligence-testing would quickly and completely supersede the old-fashioned examinations. That assumption has not been realized, though no one will deny that tests of intelligence are a valuable ally of examinations. But we do want to know what a candidate can do as well as what he is capable of doing, and the fact has been realized by the disciples of intelligence-testing, who have produced attainment tests in all subjects and who are endeavoring to demonstrate the inadequacy of tests of intelligence by producing tests of character, of will-power, even of morals. We can use all these tests, but in themselves they will not suffice to give the leaving certificate. . . . .

Any examination must, of course, be a test of the efficiency of the school which sends in examinees. But we must look to it that this efficiency is not tested against the grain in modern schools, as it is in secondary schools. And we must insure that, more than the school, the pupil is tested. He must be tested as to what he can do, what he will do, and what he does. What he knows (so important a factor in the first-school examination) may be tested also, but, although it is always interesting to discover what knowledge a pupil possesses, the value of this discovery is relatively unimportant. It is the application of that knowledge in thought and skill which matters. And it is methods of measuring that application which we must establish, using the modern schools as our laboratory for research.

THE TIME AND THE PERSONNEL AVAILABLE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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The data presented in this article and subsequent articles[1] were gathered by means of a check list from 522 secondary-school principals who were members of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in 1927. Every state in the United States is represented in the study except Idaho, Nevada, New Mexico, and South Carolina. The schools range in enrolment from 4 to 6,500 pupils. For purposes of detailed analysis, the schools are classified into nine groups according to enrolment and into five groups according to type. Group 1 consists of schools which have enrolments ranging from 4 to 100; Group 2, of schools which have enrolments ranging from 101 to 200; Group 3, from 201 to 300; Group 4, from 301 to 500; Group 5, from 501 to 700; Group 6, from 701 to 1,000; Group 7, from 1,001 to 1,500; Group 8, from 1,501 to 2,000; and Group 9, from 2,001 to 6,500. The enrolment groups are subdivided according to the common classification of secondary schools, namely, city, town, community, rural, and private schools. The complete classification is shown in Table I. This table should prove helpful to principals who may be interested in analyzing the practices employed in schools of a given type.

Principals of secondary schools often complain of insufficient time for the performance of administrative duties. Many claim that they are required to teach and, as a result, cannot find time to perform their administrative duties without drawing heavily on their leisure hours. Others maintain that the difficulty is not one of time but rather the efficient distribution of the time available and the

[1] This article is the first of a series of articles dealing with certain aspects of secondary-school administration, such as office hours, office organization, use of labor-saving devices, systematic filing of professional materials, and the procedures employed in conferring and communicating with pupils, parents, and teachers.

proper organization and distribution of duties among the various members of the faculty who assist in administration.

The purpose of this article is to present the factual data regarding the time and the personnel available for administrative duties in the 522 secondary schools studied. The findings should furnish trends for the guidance of principals in the organization and administration of their schools.

The time of the principal available for administrative work is determined chiefly by the extent of his regular teaching duties. The number and the character of the administrative duties which he

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO ENROLMENT AND TYPE

Enrolment Group	City Schools	Town Schools	Community Schools	Rural Schools	Private Schools	Total
1 (4–100)	0	2	1	5	1	9
2 (101–200)	4	19	6	0	0	29
3 (201–300)	30	19	6	0	0	55
4 (301–500)	49	19	6	0	1	75
5 (501–700)	49	19	4	0	0	72
6 (701–1,000)	78	6	3	0	0	87
7 (1,001–1,500)	91	2	2	0	0	95
8 (1,501–2,000)	54	3	0	0	0	57
9 (2,001–6,500)	41	2	0	0	0	43
Total	396	91	28	5	2	522

performs are determined largely by the persons available as administrative assistants and the extent to which their time can be utilized in administrative assignments. The data presented in Tables II–XXIII will help to answer certain questions in administration and will provide factual material on which to base a program of administrative reorganization if reorganization is needed.

Table II reveals the practices of the principals in the schools in the different enrolment groups with respect to classroom teaching. The data show that approximately 90 per cent of the principals of the schools in Groups 1 and 2 (4–200) engage in regular teaching duties. Seventy-six per cent of the principals of the schools in Group 3 (201–300) and 49 per cent of the principals of the schools in Group 4 (301–500) teach part of the time. In the larger schools in Groups 5–8 (501–2,000) the percentages of principals who teach regularly

range from 22 to 2. Only in the schools in Group 9 (2,001–6,500) are all the principals relieved of teaching duties. Without doubt some of the principals of the schools in Groups 5–8 (501–2,000) who teach one or more classes regularly are not required to do so. They may have entered the principalship directly from teaching positions and, because of strong interest in teaching, continue through choice to devote some of their time to classroom instruction. Some principals who voluntarily teach claim that they are able to establish closer relations with both teachers and pupils through teaching. Others maintain that it is virtually impossible for a principal of a

TABLE II

PRACTICES OF THE PRINCIPALS WITH RESPECT TO REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHING

Enrolment Group	Number of Principals Who Teach	Number of Principals Who Do Not Teach	Total
1 (4–100)	8	1	9
2 (101–200)	27	2	29
3 (201–300)	42	13	55
4 (301–500)	37	38	75
5 (501–700)	16	56	72
6 (701–1,000)	5	82	87
7 (1,001–1,500)	2	93	95
8 (1,501–2,000)	2	55	57
9 (2,001–6,500)	0	43	43
Total	139	383	522

school of more than three hundred pupils to carry on the administrative duties of the principalship and at the same time teach regularly and that the addition of teaching duties interferes with the personal assumption of administrative responsibilities of greater importance to the school than classroom teaching.

Table III shows the extent to which the time of the principals who teach is spent in teaching. From the data secured it is possible to determine whether teaching responsibility draws too heavily on the principal's time to permit an adequate amount of time for administrative and supervisory duties, especially in the larger schools. It may be necessary for principals in charge of secondary schools which enrol less than three hundred pupils to teach from one to three classes a day, but it is difficult to understand how

principals of schools ranging in enrolment from three hundred to seven hundred pupils and especially principals of schools having from seven hundred to one thousand pupils can teach one or more classes a day and have a sufficient amount of time for the performance of their administrative duties.

The data in Table III show that the teaching principals in the schools in Groups 1–3 (4–300) teach on the average approximately three classes a day, or about one-half of the time. The principals who teach in the schools in Groups 4 and 5 (301–700) spend an average of 1.6 periods a day in teaching, or about one-fourth of their

TABLE III

NUMBER OF CLASSES TAUGHT EACH DAY BY THE PRINCIPALS WHO TEACH

ENROLMENT GROUP	NUMBER OF CLASSES						TOTAL
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	
1 (4–100)	1	2	1	3	0	1	8
2 (101–200)	5	4	11	5	2	0	27
3 (201–300)	12	17	5	3	4	1	42
4 (301–500)	23	5	5	4	0	0	37
5 (501–700)	13	3	0	0	0	0	16
6 (701–1,000)	3	2	0	0	0	0	5
7 (1,001–1,500)	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
8 (1,501–2,000)	1	0	1	0	0	0	2
9 (2,001–6,500)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	60	33	23	15	6	2	139

time; those in Groups 6–8 (701–2,000), an average of 1.4 periods a day. If the time spent in teaching is not compensated for in some way, the principal is compelled to accomplish his administrative work in less time than is required by the non-teaching principal, to draw on his leisure hours for extra time for administrative work, or to neglect his administrative duties and allow his office to become cluttered with deferred tasks. The solution of the problem which regular teaching creates may be found in part in data presented in subsequent tables which reveal the extent to which administrative assistance is made available for the principal.

Table IV presents data which show that 55 per cent of the 522 schools included in the study have assistant principals. In no group of schools is it the practice for all the schools either to appoint or

not to appoint assistant principals. Of the nine schools in Group 1 (4–100), one has an assistant principal who teaches only two classes a day. On the other hand, there are six schools in Group 9 (2,001–6,500) which do not have assistant principals. However, the percentage of schools which have assistant principals increases fairly steadily from group to group with two exceptions. On the whole, the data indicate that as schools increase in enrolment there is a marked tendency to provide assistant principals whether the principals teach or not.

TABLE IV

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS WHICH HAVE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

Enrolment Group	Number	Per Cent
1 (4–100)	1	11.1
2 (101–200)	9	31.0
3 (201–300)	14	25.5
4 (301–500)	35	46.7
5 (501–700)	23	31.9
6 (701–1,000)	48	55.2
7 (1,001–1,500)	72	75.8
8 (1,501–2,000)	46	80.7
9 (2,001–6,500)	37	86.0
Total	285	54.6

Table V shows the number of assistant principals who are assigned teaching duties. The information in this table makes it possible to trace the relation between the magnitude of the administrative responsibility of the principal and the size of the school. In Table IV it was shown that 55 per cent of the 522 schools have created assistant principalships. In 35 per cent of these schools the full time of the assistant principal is devoted to administrative duties. However, the use of the full time of the assistant principal for administrative work does not appear in any of the schools below Group 5 (501–700). In this group 17 per cent of the assistant principals are released from teaching duties. The percentage rises in Group 6 (701–1,000) to 27, in Group 7 (1,001–1,500) to 46, in Group 8 (1,501–2,000) to 52, and in Group 9 (2,001–6,500) to 73. The data indicate that, when the enrolment of a school reaches approximately five hundred, the responsibilities for administration

are sufficiently heavy to warrant the appointment of an assistant principal, whose time may be devoted either fully or in part to the discharge of administrative functions. Even in the schools in Groups 2 (101–200) and 3 (201–300) the need of such assistance for the principal has been recognized in approximately one-third of the cases. Further analysis of the work of the assistant principals will be made from the data presented in Tables VI, VII, and VIII to determine the proportion of the time of the assistant principals who teach which is available for administrative duties and the general nature of the duties performed.

TABLE V

PRACTICES OF THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS WITH RESPECT TO REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHING

Enrolment Group	Number of Assistant Principals Who Teach	Number of Assistant Principals Who Do Not Teach	Total
1 (4–100)	1	0	1
2 (101–200)	9	0	9
3 (201–300)	14	0	14
4 (301–500)	35	0	35
5 (501–700)	19	4	23
6 (701–1,000)	35	13	48
7 (1,001–1,500)	39	33	72
8 (1,501–2,000)	22	24	46
9 (2,001–6,500)	10	27	37
Total	184	101	285

The data presented in Table VI show the number of periods a day the assistant principals spend in regular teaching. The average number of classes taught daily by the entire group of 184 assistant principals is three, or approximately one-half of the time. In the smaller schools in Groups 1–4 (4–500) the average number of classes taught is four, or approximately two-thirds of the time. In the large schools in Groups 8 (1,501–2,000) and 9 (2,001–6,500) the average number of periods devoted to teaching is two, or about one-third of the time. Although there is marked variation in the practices of the schools in the different groups—for example, in one school in Group 1 (4–100) the assistant principal teaches only one-third of the time, and in one school in Group 9 (2,001–6,500) the assistant principal teaches one-half of the time—the tendency in the assign-

ment of teaching duties to the assistant principals is to decrease the teaching load in direct proportion to the increase in the enrolment of the schools.

Of the 285 assistant principals, 27 per cent act as deans of girls and 40 per cent as counselors of boys irrespective of whether they have teaching duties or not. Thirty-three per cent of the assistant principals do not serve in the capacity of dean or counselor; these assistant principals probably divide their time between teaching and miscellaneous administrative duties of a routine type.

TABLE VI

NUMBER OF CLASSES TAUGHT EACH DAY BY THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS WHO TEACH

ENROLMENT GROUP	NUMBER OF CLASSES						TOTAL
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	
1 (4–100)	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
2 (101–200)	0	0	2	3	2	2	9
3 (201–300)	0	1	3	1	8	1	14
4 (301–500)	0	6	14	10	4	1	35
5 (501–700)	1	3	7	6	2	0	19
6 (701–1,000)	3	11	8	8	4	1	35
7 (1,001–1,500)	7	12	12	8	0	0	39
8 (1,501–2,000)	7	11	2	1	1	0	22
9 (2,001–6,500)	4	5	1	0	0	0	10
Total	22	50	49	37	21	5	184

The data in Tables VII and VIII show that, as the schools increase in size, the practice of assigning the assistant principals to the specialized work of dean of girls or counselor of boys becomes more common. Of the twenty-four assistant principals in the schools in Groups 1–3 (4–300), 54 per cent serve either as deans or as counselors, while 65 per cent of the 106 assistant principals in the schools in Groups 4–6 (301–1,000) and 70 per cent of the 155 assistant principals in the large schools in Groups 7–9 (1,001–6,500) act in similar capacities. With the exception of the assistant principals in the schools in Group 9 (2,001–6,500), of whom thirty-five out of thirty-seven act either as deans or as counselors, the assistant principals in the schools in Group 4 (501–700) stand highest (thirty out of thirty-five) in the assumption of the specialized responsibilities for the personnel administration of girls and boys. However,

the schools in Group 4 (301–500) lead the schools in all the other groups in the percentage of assistant principals assigned to duties with respect to girls. The data probably mean that the administrative work in schools having from three hundred to five hundred

TABLE VII

NUMBER OF ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS WHO PERFORM THE DUTIES OF A DEAN OF GIRLS

Enrolment Group	Number of Assistant Principals Who Act as Deans of Girls	Number of Assistant Principals Who Do Not Act as Deans of Girls	Total
1 (4–100)	1	0	1
2 (101–200)	0	9	9
3 (201–300)	0	14	14
4 (301–500)	17	18	35
5 (501–700)	7	16	23
6 (701–1,000)	12	36	48
7 (1,001–1,500)	17	55	72
8 (1,501–2,000)	9	37	46
9 (2,001–6,500)	14	23	37
Total	77	208	285

TABLE VIII

NUMBER OF ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS WHO PERFORM THE DUTIES OF A COUNSELOR OF BOYS

Enrolment Group	Number of Assistant Principals Who Act as Counselors of Boys	Number of Assistant Principals Who Do Not Act as Counselors of Boys	Total
1 (4–100)	0	1	1
2 (101–200)	6	3	9
3 (201–300)	6	8	14
4 (301–500)	13	22	35
5 (501–700)	5	18	23
6 (701–1,000)	15	33	48
7 (1,001–1,500)	26	46	72
8 (1,501–2,000)	22	24	46
9 (2,001–6,500)	21	16	37
Total	114	171	285

pupils requires at least the part-time services of an assistant principal, who is in the majority of cases a woman and who acts as a teacher and as the dean of girls. In the larger schools the assistant

principal is more likely to be a man, who, in addition to teaching a few classes, functions as a personnel officer for both boys and girls, or there may be two assistant principals, a man and a woman, who teach part of the time and serve the remainder of the time as counselor of boys and dean of girls.

A further check on the administrative assistance received by high-school principals is obtained from the data presented in Table IX regarding the practice of employing a separate person to act as dean of girls. Two hundred and twenty-one of the 522 schools employ such persons. If to this number of separate deans of girls is

TABLE IX

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS WHICH EMPLOY SEPARATE DEANS OF GIRLS

Enrolment Group	Number	Per Cent
1 (4–100)	1	11.1
2 (101–200)	10	34.5
3 (201–300)	17	30.9
4 (301–500)	16	21.3
5 (501–700)	26	36.1
6 (701–1,000)	43	49.4
7 (1,001–1,500)	50	52.6
8 (1,501–2,000)	33	57.9
9 (2,001–6,500)	25	58.1
Total	221	42.3

added the seventy-seven assistant principals (Table VII) who act as deans of girls, the total number of persons assigned by the principals of the 522 schools to the special task of advising the girls in the schools is 298. Thus, it is seen that in 57 per cent of the schools the principals receive assistance in the personnel administration of the girls.

Analysis of the data in Tables VII and IX shows that in the small schools in Groups 1–3 (4–300) the assistant principal acts as dean of girls in only one case while separate deans are appointed in 30 per cent of the schools. A very different practice is observed in the schools in Group 4 (301–500), which assign the assistant principals to work as deans of girls in seventeen cases and employ separate deans of girls in sixteen cases. One hundred and eight of the 195 larger schools in Groups 7–9 (1,001–6,500) report separate deans of girls while only 40 assign the duties of a dean to assistant prin-

cipals. The evidence shows that the practice of employing a separate dean to aid the principal in the administration of the high-school girl is pretty well established.

Additional data in Table X show that the separate deans are used as part-time teachers by all the 221 schools which have deans

TABLE X

NUMBER OF DEANS OF GIRLS WHO TEACH

Enrolment Group	Number of Deans of Girls Who Teach	Number of Deans of Girls Who Do Not Teach	Total
1 (4–100)	1	0	1
2 (101–200)	10	0	10
3 (201–300)	17	0	17
4 (301–500)	16	0	16
5 (501–700)	24	2	26
6 (701–1,000)	36	7	43
7 (1,001–1,500)	38	12	50
8 (1,501–2,000)	22	11	33
9 (2,001–6,500)	14	11	25
Total	178	43	221

TABLE XI

NUMBER OF CLASSES TAUGHT EACH DAY BY THE DEANS OF GIRLS WHO TEACH

Enrolment Group	Number of Classes							Total
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	Seven	
1 (4–100)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
2 (101–200)	0	0	0	2	4	4	0	10
3 (201–300)	0	0	0	9	7	0	1	17
4 (301–500)	0	0	1	4	9	2	0	16
5 (501–700)	0	4	7	8	4	1	0	24
6 (701–1,000)	2	3	13	10	6	2	0	36
7 (1,001–1,500)	4	9	14	11	0	0	0	38
8 (1,501–2,000)	5	8	5	3	0	1	0	22
9 (2,001–6,500)	5	5	2	2	0	0	0	14
Total	16	29	42	49	30	11	1	178

except 43 in Groups 5–9 (501–6,500). The extent to which the time of the dean of girls is spent in teaching is shown in Table XI. The schools in Groups 1–3 (4–300) require the deans to teach 5.0 classes a day on the average; the schools in Groups 4–6 (301–1,000), 4.0 classes; and the schools in Groups 7–9 (1,001–6,500), 2.6 classes.

The average for the 178 schools which require the deans of girls to teach is 3.5 classes a day. The average time available for administrative duties in the case of the deans who teach is seen to be 2.5 or 3.5 periods a day, depending on whether there are six or seven periods in the daily schedule.

Another source of administrative relief for the principal through the delegation of special duties is to be found in a new administrative officer, the separate counselor of boys, who is employed by 70 of the 522 schools. This officer is shown by Table XII to have found a place in all the groups of schools except Group 1 (4–100), particularly in Group 9 (2,001–6,500).

TABLE XII

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS WHICH EMPLOY SEPARATE COUNSELORS OF BOYS

Enrolment	Number	Per Cent
1 (4–100)	0	0.0
2 (101–200)	1	3.4
3 (201–300)	2	3.6
4 (301–500)	6	8.0
5 (501–700)	8	11.1
6 (701–1,000)	8	9.2
7 (1,001–1,500)	16	16.8
8 (1,501–2,000)	7	12.3
9 (2,001–6,500)	22	51.2
Total	70	13.4

Tables XIII and XIV show that the large majority of the counselors (fifty-two out of seventy) are merely teachers who are assigned by the principals to duties in the personnel administration of boys. The practice of utilizing the full time of the counselors in administrative work obtains only in large schools in Groups 6–9 (701–6,500). In all the schools in Groups 2–5 (101–700) which have counselors for boys, the counselors are required to teach. In the large schools in Groups 6–9 (701–6,500) the counselors are required to teach in 66 per cent of the cases.

Still another type of administrative relief is secured by some principals through the appointment of directors of extra-curriculum activities. These persons are usually teachers who are released in whole or in part from teaching duties. Of the 522 schools, 77, or

15 per cent, have made such appointments. Table XV shows the number and the percentage of schools in each of the enrolment groups that have adopted the practice.

TABLE XIII

NUMBER OF COUNSELORS OF BOYS WHO TEACH

Enrolment Group	Number of Counselors of Boys Who Teach	Number of Counselors of Boys Who Do Not Teach	Total
1 (4–100)	0	0	0
2 (101–200)	1	0	1
3 (201–300)	2	0	2
4 (301–500)	6	0	6
5 (501–700)	8	0	8
6 (701–1,000)	7	1	8
7 (1,001–1,500)	12	4	16
8 (1,501–2,000)	5	2	7
9 (2,001–6,500)	11	11	22
Total	52	18	70

TABLE XIV

NUMBER OF CLASSES TAUGHT EACH DAY BY THE COUNSELORS OF BOYS WHO TEACH

Enrolment Group	Number of Classes						Total
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	
1 (4–100)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2 (101–200)	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
3 (201–300)	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
4 (301–500)	0	0	0	2	4	0	6
5 (501–700)	0	0	0	4	3	1	8
6 (701–1,000)	0	0	5	1	0	1	7
7 (1,001–1,500)	0	3	3	5	1	0	12
8 (1,501–2,000)	0	1	2	0	1	1	5
9 (2,001–6,500)	1	7	1	1	1	0	11
Total	1	11	12	13	11	4	52

The data assembled in Tables XVI and XVII show that in only eleven of the seventy-seven schools the directors devote all their time to extra-curriculum duties. This practice, however, is not limited to the largest schools. One school in Group 3 (201–300) releases the director from all teaching duties, and one school in Group 2 (101–200) requires only two periods of teaching a day. The average

number of periods devoted to teaching each day by the directors in the sixty-six schools which assign teaching duties is 3.6, or approximately 60 per cent of the school time.

From the factual material presented, it is seen that the principals in many schools have the assistance of several persons for

TABLE XV

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS WHICH EMPLOY DIRECTORS OF EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

Enrolment Group	Number	Per Cent
1 (4–100)	1	11.1
2 (101–200)	1	3.4
3 (201–300)	8	14.5
4 (301–500)	8	10.7
5 (501–700)	5	6.9
6 (701–1,000)	13	14.9
7 (1,001–1,500)	19	20.0
8 (1,501–2,000)	11	19.3
9 (2,001–6,500)	11	25.6
Total	77	14.8

TABLE XVI

NUMBER OF DIRECTORS OF EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES WHO TEACH

Enrolment Group	Number of Directors of Extra-Curriculum Activities Who Teach	Number of Directors of Extra-Curriculum Activities Who Do Not Teach	Total
1 (4–100)	1	0	1
2 (101–200)	1	0	1
3 (201–300)	7	1	8
4 (301–500)	8	0	8
5 (501–700)	5	0	5
6 (701–1,000)	11	2	13
7 (1,001–1,500)	16	3	19
8 (1,501–2,000)	9	2	11
9 (2,001–6,500)	8	3	11
Total	66	11	77

either full time or part time in the discharge of administrative duties. There remains a still different type of assistance with which 441 of the 522 principals are provided, namely, clerical service. Table XVIII shows the percentage of principals in the different groups of schools provided with clerical service, and Table XIX shows the number of clerks employed. The average number of clerks in the

441 schools which employ clerks is 2.0; the average for the 522 schools included in the study is 1.7.

It has been shown that 383, or 73 per cent, of the 522 principals are relieved entirely of teaching duties in order that they may devote their full time to the administration of their schools and that

TABLE XVII

NUMBER OF CLASSES TAUGHT EACH DAY BY THE DIRECTORS OF EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES WHO TEACH

ENROLMENT GROUP	NUMBER OF CLASSES						TOTAL
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	
1 (4–100)	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
2 (101–200)	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
3 (201–300)	0	0	3	1	3	0	7
4 (301–500)	0	1	2	3	2	0	8
5 (501–700)	1	1	0	0	2	1	5
6 (701–1,000)	0	1	2	4	4	0	11
7 (1,001–1,500)	1	2	5	3	4	1	16
8 (1,501–2,000)	1	1	1	3	3	0	9
9 (2,001–6,500)	3	1	3	1	0	0	8
Total	6	8	16	15	19	2	66

TABLE XVIII

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS WHICH EMPLOY CLERKS

Enrolment Group	Number	Per Cent
1 (4–100)	2	22.2
2 (101–200)	6	20.7
3 (201–300)	37	67.3
4 (301–500)	51	68.0
5 (501–700)	66	91.7
6 (701–1,000)	85	97.7
7 (1,001–1,500)	94	98.9
8 (1,501–2,000)	57	100.0
9 (2,001–6,500)	43	100.0
Total	441	84.5

the remaining 139 principals are required to teach two classes a day on the average, which leaves approximately two-thirds of their time available for administrative work. It is interesting to ascertain the extent to which principals have compensated for the time lost from administration through teaching and have supplemented them-

selves in administration by the addition of both general and specialized assistants. In the 522 schools there are 101 non-teaching and

TABLE XIX

NUMBER OF CLERKS EMPLOYED IN EACH GROUP OF SCHOOLS

NUMBER OF CLERKS	ENROLMENT GROUPS									TOTAL
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
0.5	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
1.0	1	5	32	44	54	48	27	2	0	211
1.5	0	0	1	2	6	8	9	0	0	26
2.0	1	1	1	2	5	21	37	22	4	94
2.5	0	0	1	0	1	1	3	0	0	6
3.0	0	0	0	1	0	4	16	18	12	51
3.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
4.0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	8	8	22
4.5	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
5.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	6	9
6.0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	5	8
7.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
9.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3
10.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
10.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
11.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
13.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total	2	6	37	51	66	85	94	57	43	441

TABLE XX

NUMBER OF NON-TEACHING ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS

Enrolment Group	Principals	Assistant Principals	Deans of Girls	Counselors of Boys	Directors of Extra-Curriculum Activities	Total
1 (4–100)	1	0	0	0	0	1
2 (101–200)	2	0	0	0	0	2
3 (201–300)	13	0	0	0	1	14
4 (301–500)	38	0	0	0	0	38
5 (501–700)	56	4	2	0	0	62
6 (701–1,000)	82	13	7	1	2	105
7 (1,001–1,500)	93	33	12	4	3	145
8 (1,501–2,000)	55	24	11	2	2	94
9 (2,001–6,500)	43	27	11	11	3	95
Total	383	101	43	18	11	556

184 part-time teaching assistant principals, 43 non-teaching and 178 part-time teaching deans of girls, 18 non-teaching and 52 part-time teaching counselors of boys, and 11 non-teaching and 66 part-time

teaching directors of extra-curriculum activities. The average time spent by the assistant principals, deans, counselors, and directors of extra-curriculum activities in teaching is approximately one-half of the school day. These supplementary administrative officers have

TABLE XXI

NUMBER OF PART-TIME ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS

Enrolment Group	Principals	Assistant Principals	Deans of Girls	Counselors of Boys	Directors of Extra-Curriculum Activities	Total
1 (4–100)	8	1	1	0	1	11
2 (101–200)	27	9	10	1	1	48
3 (201–300)	42	14	17	2	7	82
4 (301–500)	37	35	16	6	8	102
5 (501–700)	16	19	24	8	5	72
6 (701–1,000)	5	35	36	7	11	94
7 (1,001–1,500)	2	39	38	12	16	107
8 (1,501–2,000)	2	22	22	5	9	60
9 (2,001–6,500)	0	10	14	11	8	43
Total	139	184	178	52	66	619

TABLE XXII

TIME OF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS AVAILABLE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES

Enrolment Group	Number of Schools	Number of Periods a Day		Number of Minutes a Day*
		Total	Average	
1 (4–100)	9	33	3.7	222
2 (101–200)	29	125	4.3	258
3 (201–300)	55	318	5.8	348
4 (301–500)	75	522	7.0	420
5 (501–700)	72	580	8.1	486
6 (701–1,000)	87	882	10.1	606
7 (1,001–1,500)	95	1,162	12.2	732
8 (1,501–2,000)	57	770	13.5	810
9 (2,001–6,500)	43	737	17.1	1,026
Total	522	5,129	9.8	588

* The computations are based on a school day of six periods of sixty minutes each.

found their way into virtually every type of secondary school to assist the principal in its administration. The extent to which they are employed in the 522 schools is revealed in Tables XX and XXI.

Tables XX and XXI show a total of 556 non-teaching and 619 part-time teaching administrative officers for the 522 schools, or an

average of 2.3 officers per school. The total time of the different officers available for administrative duties is shown in Table XXII for each of the different groups of schools.

As the schools increase in enrolment, the number of officers of administration likewise increases. The rate of increase is shown in Table XXIII, in which the average number of administrative officers per school is indicated for each enrolment group. The range in number of administrative officers is from 1.33 in the schools in Group 1 (4–100) to 3.21 in the schools in Group 9 (2,001–6,500). In the ninety-three small schools in Groups 1–3 (4–300) the average number of administrative officers per school is 1.7; in the middle-sized schools in Groups 4–6 (301–1,000), 2.0; in the large schools in Groups 7–9 (1,001–6,500), 2.8.

TABLE XXIII

AVERAGE NUMBER OF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS PER SCHOOL

Enrolment Group	Number of Schools	Total Number of Administrative Officers	Average Number of Administrative Officers
1 (4–100)	9	12	1.33
2 (101–200)	29	50	1.72
3 (201–300)	55	96	1.75
4 (301–500)	75	140	1.87
5 (501–700)	72	134	1.86
6 (701–1,000)	87	199	2.29
7 (1,001–1,500)	95	252	2.65
8 (1,501–2,000)	57	154	2.70
9 (2,001–6,500)	43	138	3.21
Total	522	1,175	2.25

The data presented warrant the conclusion that the number and the character of assistants, the amount of clerical service, and the time available for administrative work are such that principals of secondary schools in general have organizations which should enable them to project and carry out efficient programs of administration. Failure to do so should call for a careful examination and evaluation of administrative practices. In subsequent articles the practices of principals in the organization and administration of secondary schools will be presented for the information of those who desire to know the facts and for the guidance of those who may care to examine their own practices in the light of current tendencies.

PRESENT STANDARDS FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES

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Many boards of education and school superintendents are at the present time confronted with the pressing problem of the addition of a year or two to the secondary-school programs of their systems. Its solution is being forced upon them by local civic and commercial pride or by a real need keenly felt or scientifically measured.

This movement for the organization of public junior colleges has attained remarkable momentum during the past few years. In 1923 Koos[1] reported forty-six junior colleges in public-school systems and twenty-four in state institutions, mainly state normal schools. A nation-wide study[2] just completed shows that the number of public junior colleges has increased to 145. These numbers do not include any two-year teacher-training institutions. California has the largest number of public junior colleges (31), and Iowa is second with nineteen junior colleges reporting. One or more are found in twenty-six states located with two exceptions in the mid-western, western, and southern sections of the country. Thirty-eight of these schools were organized in 1927; the greatest number is in Iowa, ten being in this state and six in California. In California the movement has received recent impetus because of the overcrowding of the state university and the announced dropping of the Freshman and Sophomore years from Stanford University.

It is pertinent to ask about the intrinsic educational value of these schools. What standards must school authorities have in mind in the organization of junior colleges? The president of a private junior college for girls expressed the opinion that most of the pub-

[1] Leonard Vincent Koos, *The Junior College*, p. 10. Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Education Series, No. 5. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1924.

[2] F. L. Whitney, "The Present Status of the Junior College in America." Unpublished study, 1928.

lic junior colleges are "just glorified high schools." The writer's reply was, "On the other hand, the first and second years of work in the typical higher institution of learning have been found to be just high-school work—and not glorified!"

A careful inquiry in all states has revealed the fact that, as a rule, the additional two years of secondary-school work offered in junior colleges is not simply a growth by accretion. If the junior college started in this way, influence was soon brought to bear so that it was quickly organized on a creditable college basis, or the attempt was dropped.

The standardizing agencies have been found to be of at least five kinds under a tripartite division—state, regional, and national. In the state are the state university, the state board of education, the state department of education, or certain commissions charged with a study of the state situation and the formulation of proper state standards for junior colleges. Twenty-four commonwealths appear in the tabulation of state standards (Table I). In four of these the state university alone acts; in five, the state board of education alone; in four, the state department of education alone; and in three, certain state commissions alone. In three states both the state department of education and the state university have standards. In three states both the state board of education and the state university have standards. In one state the state department of education and a commission have standards, while in one state the state university and an association of colleges have standards. Four of the state agencies use the standards of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. Three use the standards of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. One uses the standards of the American Association of Junior Colleges. A letter from the Department of Public Instruction, Manila, Philippine Islands, brings word that standards for junior colleges are now being constructed in the Philippine Islands.

It is significant to note five types of state commissions which have been charged with the duty of establishing junior-college standards. In Alabama the Alabama State College Association has to date accepted without change the standards of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. In Mississippi

the State Association of Mississippi Colleges has appointed a Commission on Junior Colleges. In North Carolina is the North Carolina College Conference, and in Texas, the Association of Texas

TABLE I

STATE STANDARDIZING AGENCIES FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES

State	Agencies	Outside Relations
Alabama	Alabama State College Association	Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States
Arkansas	State Board of Education	.....
California	University of California	.....
Delaware	State Department of Public Instruction	.....
Georgia	State Department of Education	Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States
Illinois	Department of Public Instruction University of Illinois	.....
Iowa	Intercollegiate Standardizing Commission of the Iowa State Institutions of Higher Learning	.....
Kansas	State Board of Education	.....
Kentucky	University of Kentucky	.....
Louisiana	State Board of Education	American Association of Junior Colleges
Maryland	State Board of Education	.....
Michigan	University of Michigan State Board of Education	North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools
Minnesota	University of Minnesota State Board of Education	.....
Mississippi	State Department of Education Commission on Junior Colleges of the State Association of Mississippi Colleges	Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States
Missouri	State Department of Public Schools University of Missouri	.....
Montana	Department of Public Instruction State University of Montana	North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools
North Carolina	North Carolina College Conference	.....
Oklahoma	State Board of Education University of Oklahoma	North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools
South Dakota	University of South Dakota	.....
Tennessee	Department of Education	Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States
Texas	University of Texas Association of Texas Colleges	.....
Utah	Department of Public Instruction	.....
Virginia	State Board of Education	.....
Wyoming	University of Wyoming	.....

Colleges. In Iowa the State Board of Education has created the Intercollegiate Standardizing Commission of the Iowa State Institutions of Higher Learning.

The use of junior-college standards formulated by certain regional organizations has been noted. These organizations are four in number. The well-known North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools needs no description. The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States influences the junior college through its Commission on Institutions of Higher Education. The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland uses the standards of the American Council on Education. The newest regional organization is the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools; this association also uses the standards of the American Council on Education. The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools does not recognize the junior college and has no standards for it.

Two nation-wide organizations affect junior-college standards in a number of the states. These are the American Association of Junior Colleges and the American Council on Education. It is not the purpose or the function of these organizations, nor of the four regional agencies, to operate in any state through the checking of conditions in specific junior colleges. They aim to formulate general standards which may be used *in toto*, as is done in certain states, or which shall be the basis for the establishment of state standards for junior colleges.

In the investigation of American junior colleges here reported all the standards announced by local agencies in twenty-four states, by two regional agencies, and by two national agencies were analyzed and tabulated. The two national agencies are those mentioned in the preceding paragraph. The two regional agencies whose standards were included in the analysis are the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. The other two regional organizations—the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland and the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools—were omitted as they

both use the standards announced by the two national organizations—the American Association of Junior Colleges and the American Council on Education.

Space will not permit giving here the details of the complete analysis of standards formulated by these agencies—state, regional, and national. They are included in twenty tables on file in the Department of Educational Research of the Colorado State Teachers College. An attempt has been made to discover the trends of influence which are shaping the newly organized junior college by organizing generalizations based on standards found in the published statements of the two national, the two regional, and the twenty-four state standardizing agencies.

1. DEFINITION

In general, it is said that the junior college is an institution offering two years of college work beyond the usual high-school level. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools adds the statement that the junior-college work is based on the work of an accredited high school and continues or supplements this work. One state standardizing agency says that a junior college is an institution offering one or two years of work equivalent to that in the state university. One agency speaks in terms of sixty semester hours acceptable in the state university. Another agency requires the curriculum to be equal to fifteen sixty-minute recitations a week for two years on the collegiate level.

2. CRITERIA FOR ORGANIZATION

The most inclusive attitude with regard to organization is that the junior college should be located in a school district maintaining a high school and warranting the expectation of an enrolment adequate for proper development of the institution. A three-fourths vote in the district is, as a rule, required before a board of education may establish and maintain a junior college. In one state any junior college already established and maintained is recognized. In another state the secondary school to which a junior college is to be added must be fully accredited by the state department of public instruction.

3. INSPECTION AND CONTROL

Regular inspection by a representative of an accrediting agency or of the state university or of the state board of education is usually required, and regular reports are properly filed. The principle is that the controlling power has as complete authority over the destiny of a junior college as over other segments of the public-school system. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools requires that a junior college shall not be recognized until the institution has been in full operation for at least a school year. Three states require that the inspector must be an agent of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. One state has two classes of junior colleges, Class B admitting students with a maximum of fifty semester hours of high-school credit. As a rule, annual reports are required, but one state requires a biennial report; one, a triennial report; and one, a report from time to time.

4. ACCREDITING

The leading accrediting agency is usually the state university, and accrediting is preceded by inspection and report by an authorized agent. Accrediting is, as a rule, in terms of specified courses, not for a curriculum as a whole. The general character of the institution bears weight also. This includes the type of curriculum, the level of instruction, and institutional spirit. The American Council on Education and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools do not have specific standards for accrediting.

The American Association of Junior Colleges requires that, if a junior college and a high school are maintained together, the high school must be accredited first. The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, through its Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, requires that, if the junior college is affiliated with a recognized senior college, the junior college may be called on at any time for a record of all the students entering the Freshman class. This information may include name, name of secondary school, method of admission, number of units offered in each subject, and total number of units accepted.

5. ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

The generality with regard to entrance requirements is that entrance to a representative junior college should be from the same

level as entrance to the state university or a standard college. All four regional and national standardizing agencies require satisfactory completion of a four-year course of not less than fifteen units in an accredited high school. Agencies in three-fourths of the twenty-four states require fifteen high-school units; one agency requires sixteen units; and one requires twelve units from a senior high school. In one state the indefinite statement "or equivalent" is added. In nine states the requirement is that the major part of the high-school curriculum shall be closely related to the junior-college curriculum.

These requirements are for unconditional entrance. Three states admit students conditionally on presentation of fourteen high-school units, one state requiring that Freshmen must be under twenty-one years of age. In three states the admission of special students not regularly enrolled is permitted, as is usually the case in private junior colleges. In two states the conditions must be removed during the first year of residence, and in one state an examination is required. In one state qualified high-school Seniors may be admitted to classes in elementary language.

6. CURRICULUM

In general, the attitude is that the curriculum should be equivalent to that in the first and second years of a standard college and that the college year should not be shorter. In ten states five separate courses or departments are required with a specialist at the head of each. English, history, mathematics, science, and foreign language are mentioned as necessary, and the tendency is to prescribe the academic subjects which are to be required in the first year. Extra-curriculum activities are to be limited to a reasonable extent.

The curriculum must maintain a justifiable relation to the resources and the development of the institution in size of faculty and student body.

There are two divergent tendencies in objectives for the selection of the curriculum of the junior college. On the one hand, it is maintained that the junior college must be a standard arts college so far as it goes and must provide proper preparation for subsequent college work. There is a tendency in some states, on the other hand, as stated in the publications of the American Association of Junior

Colleges, to develop a curriculum which shall meet the larger and ever changing social, religious, and vocational needs of the community. This curriculum is understood to be pre-professional and on a level appropriate for high-school graduates.

7. FACULTY

The usual requirement with regard to the faculty is that there shall be four instructors devoting full time to junior-college teaching or five instructors giving the major part of their time, but in one state the number of instructors required is as low as two if but one curriculum is offered. Practically all agencies insist on a Bachelor's degree; many require a Master's degree completed or actively in process, and in one state the Master's degree must be in the special subject taught. The American Council on Education and the American Association of Junior Colleges suggest that efficiency in teaching and a good background of professional training shall be a standard, but no hint is given as to how the efficiency is to be measured.

The criterion as to salaries is that they shall be such as to insure the employment and the retention of well-trained and experienced instructors, and in one state the aim as stated is that the annual teacher turnover shall be less than 40 per cent. In a large proportion of cases a maximum of eighteen hours a week is given as the teaching load, but the range is from fifteen to twenty-one hours. The standard teaching load of one agency is sixteen hours unless a part of the teaching is done in the high school, when eighteen hours is the limit. Another agency mentions eighteen and twenty hours if part of the teaching is done in the high school. The American Council on Education takes the position that more than sixteen hours a week endangers teaching efficiency.

8. STUDENT WORK

The general attitude with regard to student work is that the junior college shall be organized on a college basis rather than on a secondary-school basis in order to secure prerequisites, scope, and thoroughness of work commensurate with those obtaining in the first and second years of a standard college or university. To this

end, distinct separation of classes is required, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States saying that no high-school pupil shall be admitted to any college class. In one state an exception to this is permitted in the foreign languages, in which case the college student may claim six semester hours of credit for a course meeting five times a week throughout the school year.

The general practice is to require a total of sixty students, from one-third to one-half of whom should be enrolled in the second year. This is the criterion of both the American Association of Junior Colleges and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. The range is from twenty-five to sixty, and one state suggests from 150 to 200 students as the ideal. At least 75 per cent of the students enrolled should be taking courses leading to graduation, thus limiting the proportionate number of special students.

Not more than thirty students are permitted in one class except for lectures. The American Association of Junior Colleges recommends not more than twenty-five students in English classes, and both this agency and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States set twenty-five as the maximum for foreign-language classes.

The American Association of Junior Colleges suggests that the maximum load of the junior-college student be eighteen hours a semester, but the range is found to be from twelve to twenty. The standards as to length of class period and school year and as to the relative credit value of class, lecture, test, and laboratory work are, in general, in harmony with standard senior-college practices.

9. GRADUATES AND DEGREES

A total of sixty semester hours is the prevailing requirement for graduation. The American Association of Junior Colleges and the American Council on Education add that each institution should adopt qualitative scholastic requirements adapted to its peculiar conditions. Both the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States and the American Council on Education say specifically that the Bachelor's degree shall not be granted, but in many states an Associate of Arts degree is permitted as well as

certificates and diplomas, some colleges having arrangements with the state department of education whereby a certificate to teach may result from graduation from the junior college.

10. RECORDS

In general, the aim is to have all student records on a high level of efficiency and in conformity with the better practices of higher institutions. The original credentials from other schools should be retained, and the registrar should have a permanent, cumulative record for each student showing credits, the dates and the names of the institutions, and the courses for which the student registered, including catalogue numbers, number of hours credit, terms taken, marks, and classification. He should have also a student's daily study card showing the courses with catalogue numbers, number of hours credit, and term taken.

11. MATERIAL ASPECTS

The two national and the two regional standardizing agencies place the safe minimum annual operating income at $20,000 and say that $10,000 of this should be derived from stable sources other than tuition and fees. More than 40 per cent of the state agencies make the same requirement, but the amount of desirable income stated varies in the states from $5,000 to $20,000. There is a general attitude also that the financial status of any junior college should be judged in relation to the educational program and that an increase in faculty, student body, and scope of instruction must be accompanied by an increase in income derived from stable sources. In one state the criterion is that a district assessed valuation in excess of $3,000,000 is desirable for the establishment of a junior college.

The American Association of Junior Colleges and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States require that the location and the construction of the buildings, lighting, heating, ventilation, nature of laboratories, corridors, lavatories, water supply, school furniture, apparatus, and methods of cleaning be such as to insure hygienic conditions for both students and faculty. In general, this is the attitude in the states as well. The

aim is also to provide for the segregation of junior-college students from high-school pupils except that libraries, auditoriums, and gymnasiums may be used for both if the junior-college enrolment is not so large that it requires an entirely separate plant.

Rather detailed standards are found for laboratory and library accommodations. The national and the regional standardizing agencies indicate that laboratories should have desk space and equipment for every student enrolled in the section so that individual instruction may be possible. They require an adequate annual income for upkeep also and recommend that a college with a limited income be equipped for work in one or two sciences only. In the state standards the amounts to be used in equipping laboratories are specified, ranging from $1,000 to $3,000 for each science taught.

As to the library, great stress is laid on the number of books (ranging from 1,000 to 5,000) and on the fact that they should be selected with special reference to college work. A definite annual budget is recommended, amounts from $200 to $600 being mentioned. Other details aim to insure a real college library for use in the junior college.

CONCLUSION

These, then, are the general trends of judgment as to what the junior college should be as expressed in the published statements of reputable and influential professional agencies. The eleven generalizations do not, of course, include any mention of legal standards as found in state statutes. To complete the picture, these ought to be included. They are discovered in the details of recent junior-college laws passed in thirteen states and have been analyzed in connection with the investigation here reported.

Every board of education and school superintendent now in active management of a local junior college or contemplating such an addition to the public-school system should be thoroughly familiar with the details of both professional standards and state laws. In no other manner can an efficient approach be made to a determination of desirable educational conditions in the college organization itself or of the need of the local district for a junior college.

THE NEW EDUCATION IN RUSSIA

ONA M. ROUNDS[1]
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In these days of mental tests and measurements of various kinds and at the time when the old educational values are on the wane, it seemed time wisely spent to visit a country that has wiped the slate clean and has started on an educational enterprise which promises to connect with life more fully and to bring in the freshness that has long been desired. Russia was the goal.

Even though the schools would be closed at the time we had to go, we knew that through various conferences with students, professors, and administrators and perhaps through other contacts we could get the information that would tell the story we were after if the government did not object. Fortunately, the door was open, and a friendly spirit was shown, as the following excerpt from a personal letter from A. V. Lunacharsky, commissioner of education, will disclose.

> We are very pleased when objective and benevolent Americans call upon us. There have been several of such Americans here, and sometimes their visits have brought the best results to their country as well as ours. I cannot tell if you will meet objections on political basis, but, however, if you represent first of all a pedagogue and civilized man, such hindrances will not take place. If you need any help from me, I am willing to do all I can to help you.

Lunacharsky was out of the country when we arrived, but an interview was arranged with one of his colleagues, and the following plan was outlined, to which he added comments. This plan we verified during the month we were in the provinces.

1. Social and general education of all children up to seventeen years of age.

2. Trade education for preparation of skilled workers: (*a*) lower, (*b*) middle, and (*c*) higher.

[1] Miss Rounds was one of the forty-two members of the American Student Delegation which visited Russia in the summer of 1927 under the direction of the Student Council of New York. The members of the delegation were received as guests of the Russian government.—EDITOR.

3. Political education—extension work for adults.
4. Research work.
5. Museums and art galleries.

1. The first division includes, first of all, preschool education—nurseries, kindergartens, communal houses—for children from two to eight years old. Russian educators think that children six years old are too young to begin regular school work. We found a great variety of work in different places. In the poorer districts and those farther from centers, there are so few buildings and teachers available that very little educational work is done. Sometimes the children are eight years old before they have the opportunity to begin what the children in more favorable districts learn when they are three or four years old. It may be some time before the plan of preschool education can be carried out, but it is the goal.

In factory towns, especially in the Urals, nurseries are in operation for a large number of the children from one to four years old whose mothers are employed. Here again many times the place is inadequate to the needs, but children who have no one to look after them at home are included first and then as many others as can be cared for. The smaller children are too young to receive training, but attention is given to their diet, rest, and cleanliness. We visited many of these places and were interested in the attempt to follow a modern diet. Cereals, which are comparatively new in Russia, eggs, and plenty of milk are served. Sometimes we found amusing inconsistencies, such as coffee for breakfast for children under two; however, this is not general.

As soon as the children are old enough, they are taught games with emphasis on group action, which, of course, is one of the principles of the Soviet system. Kindergarten classes are started in connection with the nursery or in some place near, and playgrounds are organized, both of which when equipped are similar to those in any part of the United States. Often the kindergartens are summer camps in places more healthful than the factory towns. Usually all the children who can be cared for are taken for a month; then a change is made, and a new group arrives. At Yharoslav the camp is among stately pines. When we arrived, the children were resting in long rows that filled the room, each child with a pillow on the floor.

As it was difficult for them to remain quiet when strangers from a far country were their visitors, we slipped out and looked at their schoolroom. The meager equipment was offset by a brave attempt to brighten the room with the children's work. Many of the drawings showed the opportunity for self-expression. On the outside in a small clearing, which served for a playground, a few of the older girls were having great fun swinging on ropes that they were winding around a pole in Maypole fashion.

The kindergartens in Moscow have able leadership, are, on the whole, well equipped from classroom to playground, and are all under the supervision of the educational authorities, fitting in with the general plan.

In centers where it is possible, the children are taken to reading-rooms, art galleries, and other places of interest to give them an opportunity for observation and to satisfy their natural desire for information. In the outlying districts their main contact with beauty is through nature. Many interesting things are taught them about trees and plants, often through their own small gardens.

In one phase of the social training there is a strong political feature. Each kindergarten is connected with the Pioneers or the Youth Communist group of children from eight to about fifteen years old. The Pioneers hold meetings with the older children at the kindergarten, discussing such questions of the country as they can understand. This usually results in forming the Octoberists, or baby group of Communists. Those who behave best, are most advanced, and are six and one-half years old may belong. The incentive method is used by the Pioneers, and the work, though directed, is done entirely by them. The Octoberists become in a way the honor society of the kindergarten, and here is laid the foundation for future members of the Communist party. This training is considered a necessary part of the social education, and, whether one agrees with the practice or not, one has to confess that it is a wise method of procedure from the standpoint of the Communist party.

The amount needed for the maintenance of the kindergartens is provided in the budget by the factory administration and is termed the "cultural fund." The theory is that each industry

should make provision for its workers, which includes education and recreation and extends to the family.

One might say that adult education begins with the preschool training, since the mothers receive valuable information in matters of diet, rest, and sanitation necessary to the children's welfare. Most of them are glad to follow the directions given.

The primary section under the first division includes a four-year course of instruction and is planned for children from eight to twelve years old. This follows in the main the usual subjects in the primary grades but with a very different treatment. Play is the basis of preschool work, but work combined with play becomes the basis of the first school. The children are grouped according to their interests and begin their self-government at once. That they are social beings has been well developed in their play groups. The Dalton plan is still in use, but it has been modified to suit the needs of Russia and is now known as the "laboratory-research," or "action," plan. The teacher explains the subject to be investigated, and the matter is fully discussed before the group begins work. Often it is the study of the sanitation of the neighborhood, or a nature lesson followed by outdoor study, or some other subject suggested by the life about the group. Whatever the subject, investigation begins with what the children know from their surroundings and develops from that. The groups report their findings later, and the reports become subjects for discussion or class work. Since there are few books, the teacher gathers material from different sources to supplement the information at hand and helps to organize it. Conditions in the neighborhood are freely aired, and sometimes the study results in a general cleaning-up.

The reader may get the impression that the teacher has little to do, but quite the contrary is true. She remains in the laboratory or schoolroom and is kept busy answering questions, discussing different group subjects, and many times doing research work herself to keep up with the demands of the children. There may be a dozen groups working along different lines. This does not mean that a definite time is spent each day in reading, writing, numbers, and the other subjects, but at the end of the course the children have gained the information required for advancement.

In order to make a success of the laboratory plan, teachers must be trained for it. The government gives summer courses for this purpose, and during the year the teachers are organized in groups wherever possible to discuss problems and methods. Model schools are also being placed in the villages for the benefit of the surrounding schools, usually one for every twenty-five, or one in each district. This is an added expense, but it is thought necessary. We found this plan worked out in the Ural district, and it is hoped that it will be done for all districts. Although some of the teachers do not have the cultural background that teachers in other countries have, some of the leaders feel that, since the teacher begins with the life about her, she will make the school useful to society, and the requirements can be gradually raised as it becomes possible. It is an interesting fact that only about 1 per cent of the teachers in Russia are party members.

There is no stimulation for study in the form of marks, as is found in other countries. The method of study and the approval of the teacher and of the members of the group for work well done seem to supply all the stimulus necessary. The incentive method is used everywhere. The organization of the Pioneers becomes an active force as all the children want to do well in order to belong and become leaders among the younger ones.

In the cities the same plans and methods of study and instruction are followed without the difficulties found in many of the villages.

The length of the actual school year is from 120 to 140 days in the villages with the expectation of increasing it to 176 and in the cities 180 days with the expectation of increasing it to 200.

The secondary school, the last part of the first division, offers a three-year course, followed when possible by a two-year course. This plan is not universally maintained, but it is the aim. In some provinces only a three-year course can be given, as little has ever been done in secondary education in peasant districts. Through reading-rooms it is hoped that interest in education and in better school attendance can be aroused. A budget has been arranged from both government and local funds to supply shoes and clothing as well as school supplies for those who are unable to obtain them other-

wise. The main task of the educational commissariat is to organize the nine-year course all over Russia, and this it is working hard to do.

The method of instruction is similar to that in the lower schools. With few books, with maps or charts often worked out by the pupils, and with material collected by the teachers, the work goes on. As the subjects become more advanced, direction of the groups is given to the teachers who are best trained for the special work. In other words, the teacher becomes the leader of the laboratory for a particular subject and continues his own investigation as the subject develops with his group. In fact, it is an experimental school, such as can be found in any country in small numbers, but in Russia the work is done on a large scale, and it is the usual instead of the unusual method of instruction. There are no hard-and-fast rules to follow, but, on the other hand, there is a splendid spirit of co-operation on the part of both pupils and teachers in making changes and in following any plan that promises to produce the desired results.

Matters of discipline are part of the pupils' duty to their school, and only when a case is serious enough to be taken before a committee is the teacher called on for this type of work, except as his advice may be given in his contact with the pupils. A sanitation committee of pupils looks after the condition of the building; the sports committee, after recreation; and the culture committee, after the work of the club, the reading-room, and the wall newspaper. The political phase of the social side is under the control of the Pioneers, often directed by a young Communist or a member of the Consomole, which is the next older group above the Pioneers.

By the time the pupils have finished the secondary school, they are expected to be able to choose their special lines of work and to continue study wherever courses are offered. No private schools are allowed, but the primary and the secondary schools are open to all classes alike. Compulsory education was not a reality in 1927 on account of the lack of schools and teachers, but it was thought to be possible this year, and by 1931 it is hoped that the facilities for higher education will equal the demands of those who wish it. The plan for the development of the schools and the plan for the training of the teachers run parallel.

The social and general educational plan also includes the legal defense of minors and the care of city waifs and of children physically and mentally subnormal. The enormity of these problems and the poor equipment at present to meet them even in material form are subjects for the best minds of Russia, but an attempt has been made, and the effort continues in the face of all obstacles. Some say the number of waifs has been decreased to 125,000; the number can only be estimated, however, as it has never been definitely known. The special homes for these children have been more successful since they have been able to arouse more interest through better equipment. In the winter these homes are overcrowded because of the extreme cold, but the call of the road when the spring days come is too strong for many children, and they slip away even though they are carefully guarded.

In the Perm district we found some of the mentally deficient children in the same wards with the adults, but the plan is to have separate homes for all the little ones as soon as possible.

The different republics provide the funds for educational purposes. About 13 per cent of all the money spent by the government goes to the support of the primary and the secondary schools. This is not a part of the budget but the comparative amount spent on such education.

2. Trade education is divided into three classes—lower, middle, and higher. Among the lower schools, there are, first, those connected with the factory, the aim of which is to provide skilled workers for industry. The course is from two to four years in length. The child enters when he is fourteen years old and spends one half of each day in school and the other half in some special shop, or, as we found in some districts, under the direction of a special worker, which would be similar to the apprentice plan. This continues for half the course. During the last half of the course the same amount of time is spent in school, but the rest of the time is spent in the factory itself under supervision. The leaders to whom we talked said that this plan has proved so satisfactory that the number of these schools is to be increased. In one place we found that four students out of 150 expected to continue their education when they finished the factory school. One, a girl, expected to study medicine,

and two of the boys expected to specialize as engineers. This probably does not happen often, but it is interesting since it shows that the individual makes his own decision and that the group training does not destroy his initiative. The course of study is determined by the type of factory with which the school is connected, but in all schools there is general training in the Russian language and in what is termed "social life," which is in reality the political structure of the country, or what we would call "civics," and physical training.

The middle schools for trade education are connected not with factories but with other productive enterprises, such as mining and agriculture. In all of them a certain amount of time, usually about one-half, is spent in practical work, and the same general training is given. These schools prepare workers for all minor industries.

The third group is composed of higher technical schools. The prerequisite is the seven- or nine-year secondary course or equivalent knowledge, and the aim is to provide skilled workers in all lines, from the agriculturist to the physician, journalist, or artist. The course is from three to four years in length and is varied according to the needs of the student. A large amount of practical work is done. Here, as before, the students are mainly responsible for discipline; they take part in the administration of the school and help to maintain the scholastic standing of the school. Besides the studies in social science, or social life, the political side is emphasized through the work of the Consomoles. Current topics are discussed, and world-problems in relation to the country are studied. The alertness of the students, their very active interest in everything about them, and their ability in management are inspiring.

3. Political education or extension work for adults includes all study in colleges, universities, and institutes. The aim is to prepare specialists in all lines, and the length of study is from four to four and one-half years, with a prospect of five years in the very near future.

An entrance examination is given in all higher institutions. Until last year, as there was not room for all, the children of workers were taken first, then the children of peasants, and finally the children of the bourgeoisie. Since September, 1927, however, those who pass the highest in the examination are entered first regardless

of class. Formerly, all except children of peasants and workers had to pay a high tuition. Now all children of professional people enter free.

A government stipend is given to those who are not able to pay their living expenses. It is a small sum, about thirty-five rubles a month, but it helps some students to go through college. About 65 per cent were reported as receiving this aid. If the practical part of the work is done in a shop or factory, a certain rate is paid. Many of the students are too poor to get warm clothing for the severe winter but wear the same cotton materials as in the summer. All the higher institutions are really higher technical schools and are planned in accordance with the type of work to be done. They all use some form of the seminar and the laboratory systems, and in all a certain amount of practical work is required for entrance. This is continued through the whole course. If the student comes from some industry, he is a member of that trade union and gains his admission through its recommendation. Nearly all the students are members of trade unions; even journalists and artists can find groups with which to ally themselves.

The students take part in the whole life of the school and even help to settle the economic problems. The course of study is selected by a commission of faculty members and half as many students chosen by and from the particular department. If the entire course is under supervision, representative faculty members are selected by the head of the institution, and the students are selected by the student organizations. Sometimes persons not connected with the school are added. Many other commissions are under student control. The commission on student organizations sees that every student belongs somewhere. The commission on club work plans all social gatherings, including sports, which the students feel should be used not for competitive purposes, as in other countries, but as a means of raising the physical standard of the whole group. The students cannot understand the great interest in the "big games" in the United States, which are reported in their exchange college papers. They asked many questions and could not visualize a whole student body getting wildly excited over winning a game. Such things seem inconsequential, for life is a serious business to most of them. College

is not a preparation for life but a very potent part of it. There is no break between graduation and work; the students simply continue what they have begun.

There are no formal mental tests given. Many professors, however, are interested in them and are making a careful study of the subject. One laughingly said that such testing would be considered too radical at present and rather against the Soviet principle that environment and not heredity is what really counts, but he added that whatever is found to give the best results will finally be accepted. Everything is weighed with Russia's need in mind, and nothing will be adopted without careful investigation. We found, however, that classes are grouped somewhat according to ability as they enter college. A record is kept of the student's work, much as is done in the United States, but no definite marks are given, only an estimate as satisfactory, unsatisfactory, or weak. A course may be taken twice, but after that the student is dropped. The record card is used only for reference, and a brief is given to the student if it is desired. A study of the social profile is being made of different groups in the grades. This study is to be followed up to determine the results. If the experiment proves of value, a similar study will undoubtedly be made of all groups. The books on modern education are well known and are generally discussed among the teachers. The main problem is to obtain a sufficient number of books. Many eager requests were made for catalogues of educational materials.

In the psycho-technical laboratory of the Sverdlovsk Institute tests for determining abilities are given to those students who desire them, and the course for such measurements is a Senior requirement. Practical tests for steadiness, accuracy, and judgment are given to aviators, automobile drivers, and other types of workers. Institutes are really research departments where specialists work and where students learn to become specialists. An institute is organized for any new problem that cannot be worked out in the institutes already operating.

Since the higher education is mostly technical, we asked whether harm was not done by leaving out pure science and liberal arts. The answer was that pure science as known in the West is unknown

in Russia. It is felt that all science grows out of the demands of life, that it must be social, which does not necessarily mean utilitarian. The demands of society are varied; not only engineers, teachers, and economists are needed but specialists who satisfy the aesthetic demands, such as artists and musicians. No psychology as such is taught, but reflexology based on the work of Dr. Pavlov takes its place. Logic is not given as a separate subject, but it is connected with what is termed "pedagogical psychology" and is offered only in the Pedagogical Institute. The humanities are taught in the Ethnological and the Philosophical Schools of Moscow University and in the Faculty of Languages at Leningrad. The courses in philosophy and literature are more diversified than those in the Western schools, for Russia teaches the European, Eastern, and Western Slavic philosophy and literature and from what she terms the "dialectic materialistic" point of view instead of the idealistic point of view common in the West. This applies also to the teaching of history and results in the shifting of emphasis. In Russia, or with the materialistic conception, for example, the class struggle is followed through all the history of the world, and the American Revolution is explained as an economic movement. New Russia places emphasis on the modern era, and modern history concerns itself with the mass of workers and peasants and their problems.

The selection of books for all schools is under the control of a group of professors, who make careful investigation of all materials put in the hands of the students. It is needless to say that nothing derogatory of Soviet principles is used in the schools, although a study is made of all governments and of all philosophies. The government of the Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic gives 30 per cent of all other expenses to maintain higher education. Each republic makes its own decision, but it does not differ much from the R.S.F.S.R., which has about 70 per cent of the population, or one hundred million people.

We were interested to know how many students are Communists, but we found that very few are, as they must be on probation for two years and give considerable time to the study of the party system and to attendance at different meetings. Even after the two years of probation, they are not accepted as party members if they

have not gained the required point of view. The Consomole is the communistic organization to which the students belong. A few of the students naïvely suggested that the party needed to improve and that it might be just as well to stay out for a time.

The Rabfacs are a part of the extension work for adults. These schools are peculiar to Russia except as one might find a similarity in the labor colleges or night schools for adults. Their aim is to provide education for those workers who have never had any; they are also preparatory schools for colleges and universities. Their prerequisite is three years of labor in agriculture or in some industry. They are divided into day and night schools. Those attending day school receive government aid or scholarships. The subjects taught depend on the demand. The classes are small, and often individual work is done if necessity arises. The laboratory plan is used in all Rabfacs. The students are all organized in trade unions according to their interests, and they are anxious to become competent workers as soon as possible. Some go on for further technical training in the higher schools in preparation for more responsible positions. Student control is as much in evidence here as in the colleges and universities.

Another phase of the extension work for adults is the attempt which is being made to eliminate illiteracy. This is seen to be an extremely difficult task when one realizes that 90 per cent of the population is peasant and not half have ever been reached by any form of education. The trade unions have pretty well eliminated illiteracy among the workers, and it is hoped that within four years the same will be true of the peasants. All are required to attend school for three months or until they can read and write and work simple problems. The instruction is given in the village school when possible by teachers who are specially trained for particular localities. Libraries, reading-rooms, and clubs are also organized for this purpose. Besides the elements of general knowledge, the Soviet principles are taught. Instructive and often very attractive posters which give general information along many lines are displayed in prominent places. More recently the motion picture and the radio have aided greatly in disseminating information concerning life generally and facts of agricultural interest. Model farms have been

equipped in some districts to show the peasants how they can increase their earnings by modern methods. Some of the older peasants are quite content to live as their forefathers did, and they resent being disturbed by any new ideas. As one of the students who knew English only slightly said, "They have darkness before their eyes and cannot see." Others are delighted with the opportunity to learn and are proud of the fact that they can read. Some of these continue their study longer than is required. Many of the students at the university who are expecting to teach are taking special training for work among the peasants. One attractive young girl said that she felt she could help her country most in this way.

Wall newspapers, so called because they are posted on the wall, are used among the peasants as among the workers. These are often works of art, with fine drawings or water-color sketches for illustration. They include local news or reports of international events that affect Russia, something to call for loyalty to party, and often a joke or humorous column. The locality determines the type of paper issued.

Classes of instruction are formed in the Red Army or in any group where illiterates are found. These classes often continue if enough interest is shown. The Central Board of Political Education is in charge of all educational work with adults.

4. Under the division called "research" is found work similar to graduate courses in the United States. Often this work is done independently or in connection with some college or institute. Experts along different lines are constantly at work on problems connected with government affairs or scientific study. Students who are following similar lines often do the detail work for the one in charge.

5. In the art galleries and museums are large numbers of specialists in art, natural history, and technical matters, who take groups of students and others who are interested to different art galleries and museums, explaining in detail the subject for study. Russia has always been a center for art, but, since the revolution and the nationalization of all art treasures, whole series of new museums have been opened. Instead of thirty museums in the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, there are now 476. It has taken careful study on the part of experts and a large group of interested workers

to arrange the mass of art relics in any systematic form. The People's Commissariat of Education created the Bureau of Museums for this task. While we were in Leningrad, a professor under this bureau took us through the Hermitage. He did his work ably, for he had learned the secret of selecting the important pictures in a room and leaving the group to enjoy what they chose after he had explained the interesting points and given the background of the painter. The writer had often wondered how much interest the workers take in visiting these great art centers. The question was answered one day while we were waiting for the doors of the Tretyakov Gallery in Moscow to open. In a few minutes about two hundred people—all workers—had assembled, and soon a group of students with a professor joined us. We watched the people as we went through and saw them all with catalogues studying carefully and often taking notes.

We found that the teachers receive even less salary than do many other workers, and none, except perhaps a few experts who are greatly needed in the big industrial program now in progress, receive what would be called a large amount in the United States. However, there is a salary scale for teachers which provides for advancement every three years and which will be improved as rapidly as possible. The salary is graded on training and experience. We caused much amusement when we asked about married women teachers; not only are they elected without discredit, but a benefit and a vacation of six weeks with pay are given for each child born. Even though the Russians are behind other nations in eugenics, they do not wish to have fewer children in the educated families than they now have.

Perhaps the State Publishing Department of the Soviet Union, one of the largest publishing enterprises in the world, should be included in the educational plan. In the last year or two it has begun publishing works of general literature and natural science as well as books of social science and politics. When textbooks can be supplied to the schools, part of the hardship will be over. We who had an opportunity to investigate this new educational enterprise even in a small way feel that a step in advance has been taken and are willing to leave the future to the youth of Russia.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE ACTIVITY PROGRAM

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A great many secondary schools, especially those of the six-year type, are concerned about the place of the activity program in the curriculum. During the past few years administrators have been convinced of the value of an activity program, but they are unable to solve the problem of developing a program that does not lengthen the school day unduly or interfere with the housing of the modern differentiated curriculum. An "activity program" may be defined as a program of meetings of clubs and other organizations, home-room activities, and pupil assemblies, all within the school day.

During the past few years the Dearborn High School, a six-year high school with an enrolment of approximately five hundred and fifty pupils, has experimented with such a program and has finally developed a plan that seems well adapted to the needs of a six-year high school. The experience acquired has led the faculty of the school to the following conclusions. (1) It seems advisable to require participation of all pupils in a club program. (2) Clubs are more successful when the meetings are held at a time when all the pupils are in school. (3) It is advisable to maintain assemblies for the entire school. (4) Some assembly programs are more valuable when attendance is limited to the junior high school; other programs should be limited to senior high school pupils. (5) Home rooms are essential for the development of the best school spirit and discipline. (6) Such activities as music and physical training are better placed in the regular school curriculum and not provided for in the activity hour.

As the Dearborn High School offers a large program of studies, it is necessary for the activity program to take up a minimum amount of time. At present the class schedule requires seven fifty-

minute periods, and the faculty is contemplating six sixty-minute periods. This schedule provides a minimum amount of time for an activity program.

During the past two years the school has been maintaining a combined home-room and assembly program, giving one or two days a week to all-school assemblies and the remaining days to home-room meetings. Experiments with a club program led to placing the club hour the last period in the day and scheduling all classes in six periods. By this method the entire week was given to clubs, including such organizations as the glee club, the band, and the orchestra. In this case too much time was available for clubs. For instance, if a pupil was enrolled in a club that met once a week, he was sent to a study hall the remaining days. As a result, the study halls were so congested that the plan was detrimental to any attempts to develop good habits of study.

The club hour was then moved to the half-hour immediately preceding the first-hour classes. This change eliminated the confusion and the congestion of the earlier plan, as the pupils were required to come early only if their clubs were meeting. However, the classes met at half-past eight, and many parents protested against having their children at school by eight o'clock. As a result, the problem of tardiness became acute.

The present plan developed as a result of these difficulties. Home-room programs are held on Monday, Tuesday, and Thursday. On Friday an all-school assembly is held. On the first and third Wednesdays of each month the junior high school assembly is held while the senior high school pupils are attending meetings of their clubs. On the second and fourth Wednesdays of each month the senior high school assembly is held, the junior high school clubs meeting at the same time. The one outstanding criticism of this plan is the small amount of time given to home-room meetings. Up to this time, however, this criticism has not been made by any of the teachers in the school.

The great advantage of combining clubs, home-room meetings, and assembly programs has been in the saving of time and in the possibilities of divided assemblies without loss in the values derived from the all-school assembly each Friday. The Friday assembly

programs are arranged almost entirely by the pupils without any continuity of program. The main purpose is to provide worthy entertainment and recreation and to develop school spirit and morale. The Wednesday programs are more closely related to the regular curricular offerings and serve to develop the intellectual and spiritual life of the pupils.

The home-room meetings are held at the end of the second period and are twenty minutes in length. The morning classes begin at 8:30 A.M. and dismiss at 12:10 P.M. Four classes meet each morning, the activity period coming between the second and the third periods.

TABLE I

ACTIVITY SCHEDULE OF THE DEARBORN HIGH SCHOOL

Activity	Days of Meeting	Length of Period in Minutes	Time of Day
Home-room program.....	Monday, Tuesday, Thursday	20	10:10–10:30
All-school assembly.....	Friday	40	10:00–10:40
Junior high school assembly	First and third Wednesdays	40	10:00–10:40
Senior high school assembly	Second and fourth Wednesdays	40	10:00–10:40
Junior high school clubs...	Second and fourth Wednesdays	40	10:00–10:40
Senior high school clubs...	First and third Wednesdays	40	10:00–10:40

Forty minutes is provided for the club and assembly programs on Wednesday and Friday; the additional twenty minutes is obtained by taking five minutes from each morning period. Table I shows the arrangement of the schedule more clearly.

Table II shows the success of the activity requirements and regulations in so far as participation has not interfered with the scholarship of the school. In this table the pupils have been grouped according to their average marks for 1926–27. Of the pupils who received marks of 70 or less, 86.4 per cent were enrolled in the minimum number of activities; only 13.6 per cent earned from four to seven activity points. The third column under the heading "Number of Activity Points" indicates that the activities have been well regulated, the percentage of pupils earning from eight to eleven activity points increasing in direct proportion to the scholarship of the group. In other words, the greatest percentage of pupils earning from eight to eleven activity points is found in the group of

pupils whose scholastic averages were between 91 and 100. Too many pupils in the group having average marks between 81 and 90 were enrolled in activities giving twelve or more points. This weakness in the regulations is difficult to overcome for the pupils in this group furnish the greatest ability in various school activities.

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS WITH VARIOUS MARKS ON THE BASIS OF THE NUMBER OF ACTIVITY POINTS EARNED

MARKS	NUMBER OF ACTIVITY POINTS				NUMBER OF PUPILS
	0–3	4–7	8–11	12 or More	
60–70	86.4	13.6	0.0	0.0	22
71–80	67.2	25.0	6.0	1.7	116
81–90	57.4	27.1	11.7	3.7	188
91–100	40.7	35.2	20.4	3.7	54
Number of pupils	227	102	40	11	380
Median mark	82.8	85.1	87.5	86.7	84.1

The program described has been regulated by only a few restrictions. Table II gives evidence of the effectiveness of the requirements and regulations, which are as follows:

1. Activity requirements.
   a) A pupil may not belong to more than two recognized clubs at one time.
   b) The maximum number of points that may be earned by an average pupil during his six years in high school is 50.
   c) The minimum number of points to be earned is 30.
   d) Exceptional pupils may obtain permission to earn more than 50 points.
2. Regulations for activity participation.
   a) An eligibility list will be prepared each month for all special activities—assembly plays, operettas, etc.
   b) No pupil may be excused from class or study to prepare for any special activity.
   c) No Freshman who is failing in any subject shall be allowed to participate in any special activity (including athletics).
   d) All class officers, council members, and journalistic officers who receive two consecutive failures in any subject shall be requested to resign.
   e) Eligibility for interclass athletics shall be determined monthly.
   f) No pupil shall be enrolled in more than two activities.

ESTIMATES OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE MADE BY GRADUATE STUDENTS AS COMPARED WITH ESTIMATES MADE BY PRINCIPAL AND ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL

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The purpose of the study here reported is to determine how the ratings of teachers made by nine graduate students compare with the ratings made by the principal and the assistant principal when the same score card is used. Eight of the graduate students were men, all of whom had had experience as principals or superintendents in cities of more than 10,000 population. The ninth student was a woman, who had been a special supervisor of languages in secondary schools in a city of more than 100,000 population. The score card was applied to fifteen teachers in service, all of whom were instructors in a high school. These fifteen high-school teachers had been in the particular school system for more than five years and were selected because of this fact. It was assumed that the principal and the assistant principal knew the strong and the weak points of these teachers, and their judgment on the rating scale is used as the criterion for judging the ability of the graduate students to rate the efficiency of teachers' work.

The rating scale was made up as follows:

1. Personal fitness
   a) General appearance
   b) Mental poise
   c) Vitality
2. Classroom management
   a) Discipline
   b) Care of routine
   c) Care of room
   d) Study supervision
3. Teaching skill
   a) Evidence of careful planning
   b) Vitalized instruction

c) Adaptation of instruction to different levels of pupil ability
d) Successful accomplishment of aims

4. Achievements
   a) Attitude and responsiveness of pupils
   b) Success of pupils in standard tests and examinations

5. General fitness
   a) Professional growth and spirit
   b) Fair-mindedness
   c) Loyalty and ability to co-operate
   d) Health
   e) Promptness and accuracy in matters of required reports
   f) Leadership
   g) Responsiveness to suggestion and direction

In order to compare the ratings made by the graduate students with the ratings made by the principal and the assistant principal, the different degrees of ability and fitness—very poor, below average, average, above average, and superior—were given values of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, respectively. The scores given to each teacher on the different items were added, and the sum was divided by the total number of items. If a teacher's average score was 3.5, her total rating was between average and above-average ability. The average scores given to the teachers by the graduate students were added, and the sum was divided by the total number of graduate students in order to determine their average rating. Figure 1 shows the ratings of the fifteen teachers made by the principal, the assistant principal, and the graduate students.

In visiting the teachers, the graduate students arranged a schedule whereby only one visited a recitation at a time. As a result, practically all the classes taught by the different teachers were visited by at least one of the graduate students. None of the teachers realized that the observers were present for the purpose of rating their teaching. The situation was ideal for this purpose. Student teachers constantly observe high-school teachers in the school, and the teachers in service are accustomed to having visitors at any time. The high school in which the study was made enrols seven hundred pupils and has thirty-four teachers.

It was supposed that the principal and the assistant principal had a fairly accurate knowledge of the ability of the fifteen teachers.

They had known the teachers for more than five years and naturally had considerable contact with them. The assistant principal did

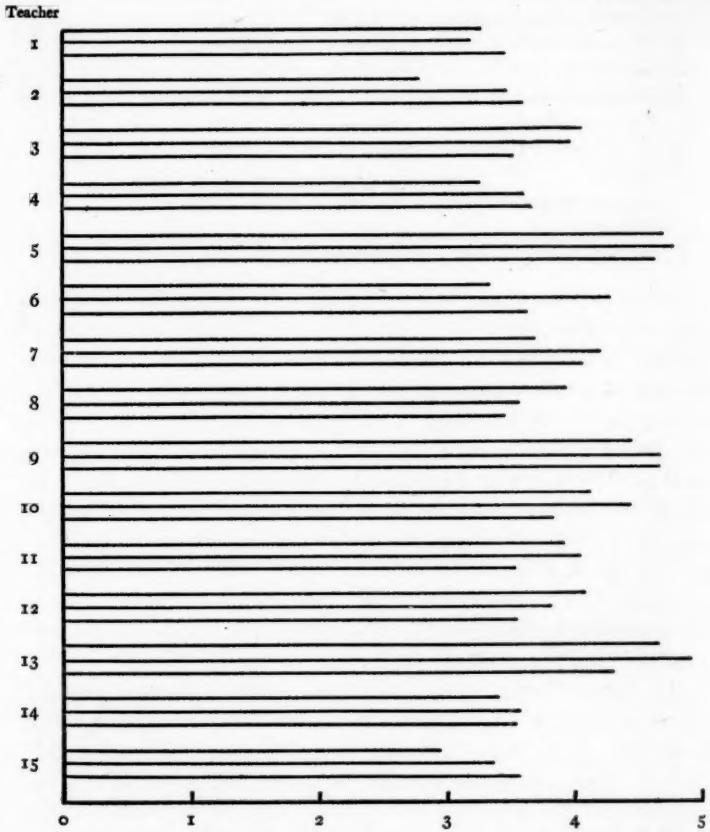

FIG. 1.—Ratings of fifteen high-school teachers made by the principal, the assistant principal, and nine graduate students. (The first line in each case represents the rating by the principal; the second line, the rating by the assistant principal; and the third line, the average rating by the graduate students.)

most of the visiting in the school and was relieved of all teaching, while the principal, who taught one class and was engaged in administrative duties, seldom visited classes. The principal and the

assistant principal rated the teachers without any consultation. Their ratings were correlated, and the correlation was found to be .82±.05. This shows high agreement in the ratings. Figure 1 shows close agreement on all teachers except Teachers 2 and 6.

When the ratings made by the principal and the assistant principal were averaged and correlated with the ratings made by the graduate students, the correlation was found to be .56±.11.

Figure 1 shows considerable agreement among those using the score card in the case of most of the fifteen teachers. The ratings made by the principal and the ratings made by the graduate students show greater disparity. The correlation by the Pearson formula between the ratings made by the graduate students and the ratings made by the principal is not high but of some significance—.47±.12. The graduate students do not agree with the principal as closely as with the assistant principal. When the findings were presented to the principal in graphic form, he said that he was not at all surprised because he had not visited the classes for a long time but had delegated the supervision of the teachers to the assistant principal. Figure 1 shows that the ratings made by the graduate students and the ratings made by the principal agree fairly well except in the case of Teachers 2, 3, 8, 12, and 15. There were factors revealed to the writer while making this study that influenced the ratings in some instances.

The correlation by the Pearson formula between the ratings made by the graduate students and the ratings made by the assistant principal is .76±.06. Figure 1 indicates considerable agreement on all the teachers except Teachers 6, 10, 11, and 13. If it can be accepted that the assistant principal actually knew the teaching ability of the group, it appears that the graduate students with the use of the score card were able to evaluate fairly accurately the teaching qualities of the fifteen high-school teachers by visiting them for only one class period.

If certain factors entering into the general problem could have been eliminated, the study would be more reliable. In a few instances the teachers were not as well prepared as usual for the day's recitation because they expected student teachers to take charge of their classes but for some reason these student teachers did

not appear. This happened in the case of a few teachers whose ratings by the graduate students were considerably lower than those by the principal and the assistant principal. This is certain to happen when the observations are limited to but one class period, and no doubt most teachers have their good and bad days in teaching. It is impossible to control absolutely an experiment of this kind, and perhaps other unknown factors operated in raising or lowering the computed correlations.

It is reasonable to believe that the ratings of teachers could be influenced by the general opinion the observers have of the teachers. It is conceivable that the general opinion or impression could influence the rating unfavorably as well as favorably. Experiences of various kinds, sometimes not at all associated with classroom procedure or qualities essential for successful teaching, interfere in teacher-rating.

It is known in one particular instance that a teacher of German was asked by the principal to remove a picture of the Kaiser from her classroom during the war. This she refused to do after several requests. A short time after this experience the son of the principal was killed in action in France. The rating given this teacher by the principal was much lower than that given by the assistant principal, graduate students, or student teachers who rated the teacher. People outside the faculty who knew of the incident expected this to happen and informed the writer with regard to it. It is very improbable that even the most unprejudiced person would be able to use the score card without permitting his general estimate of the teacher to influence his judgment on certain items.

It is apparent, however, that there is a degree of objectivity in the ratings. Figure 1 shows a tendency for the raters to agree on the teachers. The raters have different standards, but, comparatively, there is a tendency toward agreement on the ratings of the various teachers, as the correlations indicate.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Systematic studies of the problems of college and university administration.—During recent years the administrative officers of the University of Minnesota have made a number of significant studies of college problems. They have published studies relating to the registration of students, personnel management, the curriculum, and the size of classes. The members of faculties of other institutions have found these reports very useful both because of their findings and because of the stimulation which they furnish in the direction of the scientific study of higher education. The results of earlier studies are now summarized and new investigations are reported in a single book.[1] This book is made up of papers presented at a conference held during the summer of 1927 in which a number of prominent educators from other institutions as well as members of the faculty of the University of Minnesota participated.

The book contains thirty-five papers classified under three headings: "Administration," "Student Personnel," and "Curriculum and Instruction." A wide range of subjects is dealt with in these papers. For example, President E. C. Elliott, of Purdue University, discusses publicity; Dean G. S. Ford, of the University of Minnesota, treats of the selection of a faculty; A. J. Klein, of the Bureau of Education, contributes two papers dealing with problems that he has encountered in his work as specialist in higher education; Dean J. B. Johnston, President E. H. Wilkins, President D. J. Cowling, and others recount the changes which are being made in the college curriculum and in methods of managing students.

The first paper presented is by President L. D. Coffman. The leadership which has resulted in the vigorous scientific study of problems of higher education is manifest in the frank treatment which President Coffman gives to the difficulties faced by institutions of higher education. He points out that these difficulties must be overcome by methods of analysis and experimentation similar to those which have proved successful in the natural sciences in dealing with the phenomena of physical nature.

The book will be useful to all who are concerned with the administration of schools. It marks the beginning of a new era in college administration.

CHARLES H. JUDD

[1] *Problems of College Education:* Studies in Administration, Student Personnel, Curriculum, and Instruction. Edited by Earl Hudelson. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1928. Pp. xvi+450. $3.00.

A scientific study of seating equipment.—Commercial manufacturers of seating equipment for schools have vied with one another in the past to secure a share of the annual business of replacing antiquated school desks and of providing for the increase in enrolment in the schools. Changes in the specifications of seating equipment designed to provide new selling points of advantage to the maker have frequently been made. As a result, the school desk has been subjected to a number of modifications brought about chiefly by the desire of the manufacturers to create products which would win favor with the purchasers. In some instances the change has been largely a matter of price; in others, appearance; and in others, the comfort of the pupil. However, despite the efforts of the manufacturers to please their customers, school seating has been a subject of much complaint among teachers and pupils. The reason is not difficult to comprehend—the pupils who use the seats have not been made the object of scientific concern in seating construction.

The elimination of the criticism of school seating has been made possible by a study[1] of seating equipment in relation to the sitting posture of children of different ages. The investigator attacked the problem in a scientific manner with the idea of discovering the postural needs of children. An adjustable measuring chair was developed, which enabled the investigator to make accurate anatomical measurements of children while seated. Approximately thirty-seven hundred children were measured, and records were secured to serve as a basis for the reconstruction of seating specifications.

The book contains twenty-one chapters. The first chapter sets forth the need of seating reform. Chapters ii–v consider the skeletal requirements in posture and seating, the relation of posture and visceral support, and the tendencies of unnatural sitting postures to produce orthopedic defects. Chapters vi–ix emphasize the importance of correct sitting posture as an ideal of human perfection, as a factor in the attainment of moral excellence and mental efficiency, and as an essential to personal beauty and attractiveness. The relation of posture and visual hygiene are considered, and the responsibility of the school for the maintenance of proper seating conditions and for the establishment of correct sitting habits is presented. Chapters x–xv deal with the specifications of seating construction and the standards which should be required. The author describes the methods employed in the development of standards for the height, depth, slope, and form of school seats and presents distribution tables to guide in the selection of seat sizes for pupils of different ages and grades. Chapters xvi–xxi deal with the practical questions of seating administration, such as the use of adjustable furniture and movable seating, the arrangement of seating equipment in classrooms, the choice of seating for pupils in the different grades and for handicapped pupils, the materials and the construction of improved school furniture, and the methods of buying school desks. The book contains a selected bibliography of studies on posture and seating.

[1] Henry Eastman Bennett, *School Posture and Seating*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928. Pp. xii+324. $2.00.

The study was made with the means and equipment provided by the American Seating Company, but no restrictions were imposed on the investigator other than to find the facts and to publish them without commercial bias or prejudice. The findings of the study should result in a great improvement in school seating equipment. Purchasers of school desks will now have standards by which to judge commercial products, and it will be impossible for manufacturers to justify the construction of seating equipment which does not have for its primary purpose the physical welfare and postural comfort of the pupil. The book is an invaluable contribution to administrative officers, boards of education, and manufacturers of seating equipment. It answers in a scientific manner many of the questions which in the past have been answered largely by guesswork.

W. C. REAVIS

A Renaissance schoolbook.—There is no more interesting story than that of the preservation of the classics. The classics have held their position of eminence through no accident or misplaced bibliolatry. The oriental literature, whatever its virtues, was formless and inchoate, while the Mediterranean peoples had an unusual sense of form. Following the outlines of their beloved landscape, they loved the line and the angle and the curve, and whatever was most characteristic in their civilization was geometric. Their literature embodies this sense of form, and this is one chief reason why the world returns to the masters of measured expression. The Renaissance in the phase which is known as the Revival of Learning was such a return. It has the same relation to the development of modern literature that the mathematical revival has to the science movement.

With the eclipse of ancient civilization in the Dark Ages, the classics were lost to sight. At best, they were preserved as relics in the monasteries, largely unread and unregarded until the stirring of a new spirit unsealed the eyes of their keepers. The Carolingian Renaissance and the Medieval Revival had some effect in awakening the learned to the value of the Latin classics, but the Latin which was used in the cathedral and monastic schools was barbarous, a language or patois that Cicero or Vergil would have found unintelligible. Latin is a hard language at best, and, as it was not the vernacular of the barbarians, spoken Latin was subjected to somewhat the same process of change as that which formed the Romance languages.

Since Latin was the language of the learned, it was necessary that it be used not only in writing and reading but in everyday conversation. Hence it was the duty of the masters in the cathedral schools to teach the use of Latin for colloquial purposes. It was a problem to make the unwilling schoolboy use these dead vocables. The young barbarian found it difficult even under penalty, and the barbarisms of student usage crept into medieval Latin. They crept into the textbooks, and so aggravated did the evil become that some of the earlier humanists made it one of their tasks in the service of education to compose colloquial readers which might preserve the Latinity of the classics in expressing

the matters of everyday life. Erasmus made his contribution to this class of books in his famous *Colloquies*, with its wit, wisdom, and humor. Such books were published by the score, and the best went into numberless editions.

Renaissance Student Life[1] belongs to this class of schoolbooks. The author interestingly enough was a friend of Erasmus and Melanchthon and other humanists. In 1517 he was appointed as the first native professor of the Greek language at the University of Leipzig. He had the enthusiasm of the humanists and a genuine interest in education and in the improvement of scholarship. The result of his training and convictions in response to the needs of the time is the original of this translation. In content, the book is a series of imaginary conversations between individual students. The conversations are short, of convenient lesson length, and are somewhat monotonous in form and tone to present-day readers, accustomed as they are to a greater variety of objects and interests.

The conversations deal with such themes as the ever recurring matter of making a necessary penny, or getting a "hand-out," as the students of that day were impecunious and unspoiled by luxury. Occasionally, the teachers are mentioned and lessons as well, apparently without enthusiasm. There is one passage about the purchase of Greek books, which seems to reflect the author's interest in his beloved subject. The church holidays receive more than their due share of attention, and the fast days are in evidence for their evident unpopularity.

The very meagerness of content of the book is interesting evidence of the narrow round of student life in those otherwise stirring times when the modern world was making its exit from the isolation of the Middle Ages. One result of these casual dips into the stream of the literature of the past is that we become more appreciative of the advantages of our own age.

The book is translated from the Latin by Professor Seybolt of the University of Illinois. He has prepared an interesting historical introduction and has appended a full bibliography of schoolbooks of this type. It is published in neat form by the University of Illinois Press.

ARTHUR F. BARNARD

A reconstruction of ancient life.—There are many excellent novels dealing with Roman life that the teacher of Latin and history can utilize in making real the everyday affairs of a period quite beyond the pupils' experience. These novels range in time from the campaigns of Caesar in Gaul to the days of Septimius Severus. No book made an attempt to give an adequate picture of life in Gaul as the Romans found it until the appearance of a recent publication, *Long Ago in Gaul*.[2] The book is made up of loosely connected stories, each

[1] *Renaissance Student Life: The Paedologia of Petrus Mosellanus.* Translated from the Latin by Robert Francis Seybolt. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1927. Pp. xx+100. $1.25.

[2] L. Lamprey, *Long Ago in Gaul.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1927. Pp. xvi+320. $0.75.

portraying situations and ways of living among some tribe or people who later crossed the path of the Romans. The stories are simply told and are interesting enough in themselves to hold attention. When the reader has finished, he has a very adequate idea of the type of people in Gaul when the Romans came, of their ways of living, and of the country in which they lived.

The language of the book is simple; the style, direct. Moral attitudes are good. Possibly applications are too patently made to please the adult taste, but it is doubtful whether this feature will prove in any way disturbing to adolescents. The book can be read by high-school Freshmen with ease and pleasure, and it would be a valuable addition to any high-school library. It is of interest to teachers of Latin and history and to teachers of geography as well.

MIMA MAXEY

Social science in the junior high school.—A noteworthy contribution to the textbook literature for elementary social science was recently made by an outstanding authority both in the social sciences and in the field of teaching. The book[1] is designed for citizenship classes in the junior high school.

The book is devoted to the theme of group life and its problems. "It embodies such elements and principles as have been found of service in making intelligible to pupils the social world in which we live" (p. iii). It has three divisions, each composed of a series of units, each unit being presented in a single chapter. Part One, "Group Life," contains chapters on "How We Live Together," "The Family and the Home," "The School and Education," "The Church and Religion," "The Neighborhood and the Community," "Our Nation and Our Country," and "Our Neighbors in Other Lands." The last of these chapters is significant as making a relatively new and particularly useful contribution to the content of the citizenship course. Part Two, "Community Welfare," presents chapters on "Safeguarding Health," "Protecting the Community from Fire," "Maintaining Law and Order," "Providing Recreation," "Planning and Beautifying the Community," and "Aiding the Handicapped." Part Three, "Government and Citizenship," has chapters entitled "Ruling Ourselves," "Making Law," "Enforcing Law," "Applying Law," "Paying the Bills," "Selecting Our Officials," and "Being a Good Citizen." The organization of Part Three represents a new arrangement of the material of government, stressing its functional aspect, and promises to be a successful attempt to vitalize the subject for young citizens.

From a pedagogical point of view the book is as practical and as helpful as it is sound from the point of view of subject content. The book is a product of classroom experience. "It is the result of twenty years of experience in teaching boys and girls the fine art of living together" (p. iii). The author has selected a "classroom library" of twelve books to which references are made through-

[1] Howard C. Hill, *Community Civics*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+472. $1.40.

out the book, thus aiding the teacher materially in guiding the extensive reading which has come to be a vital part of good teaching. Each unit has its own recommended supplementary readings in addition to references in the classroom library. The chapters are divided into sections; each section has a list of excellent "Questions and Problems." The list of "Things To Do" at the end of each chapter constitutes a unique addition to textbook construction and a vital help to the guidance of study. These "Things To Do" are exactly what their name implies; they are not merely study questions but activity guides, exercises from which learning may arise.

The book is profusely illustrated with pictures and charts which cannot fail to attract and hold the attention of junior high school pupils. Mechanically, the book is excellent. Durably and attractively bound, with good paper, clear type, and distinctive engraving, it is a most serviceable classroom tool. It deserves the careful consideration of every social-science teacher who is alert for textbook material which is abreast of the most recent developments and tendencies within the field.

HOWARD E. WILSON

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Vocabulary study in German.—Building the German Vocabulary[1] presents so novel but so simple and clear a method of learning logically the principles of the formation of German words that the reader wonders why it was not written years ago. The aim of analyzing scientifically the formation of German words and of building up systematically an adequate vocabulary can be accomplished with the help of the author's presentation in a most expert way and by the simplest means. The work illustrates the practical application of the scientific theory of inductive teaching. English is not excluded at once from the process of learning German, but the fundamental differences between English and German are exploited pedagogically so that the student becomes conscious of the fact that German is being added to his native language "as a second language complex." In the manner of *Arbeitsunterricht* the student is forced to observe definite principles of word formation and to apply these principles in a great number of exercises; thus, he really enters into the spirit of the formation of German words.

The thousand most frequently used words of the Morgan-Kaeding word list are supplemented by words recommended by the Chicago Association of Modern Language Teachers. These words form the base on which the student builds his vocabulary. This minimum number of words is increased to approximately four thousand by a methodical study of the connotations of prefixes and suffixes and of word combinations. Etymological relations are presented in a short but extremely valuable chapter on the most frequent vowel and consonant changes in such a way that the student's ability to comprehend the

[1] Peter Hagboldt, *Building the German Vocabulary*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1928. Pp. xviii+72. $0.50.

meaning of the printed page will be greatly increased. Always the student progresses from the known to the unknown, from the specific to the general, until he is finally introduced to the study of "word families."

The author's idea of addressing the student in a special introduction is novel; it reflects the spirit of his helpful method. In a brief but very lucid statement the essential problems involved in the study of vocabulary are emphasized and explained.

The book may be called a study in detail which arouses interest and enthusiasm for the larger aspects of the subject. It gives a broad and natural foundation for the study of German and for the conquering of the new world which that study implies. In the opinion of the reviewer, the author deserves congratulations on the success achieved. The book will be found invaluable by teachers and students alike.

WALTER SCHWENN

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A curriculum for subnormal groups.—With the enrolment of heterogeneous groups in the schools and the coming of mental testing, attention has been directed toward grouping pupils on the basis of mental capacity. Modern civilization is confronted with the problem of making the best possible use of the intellectual capacity of all the members of society. This problem involves a utilization of the capacity of the mentally limited as well as of the normal and the mentally superior. However, some writers feel that too much of the energy of society has been spent in attempting to train the mentally deficient to the neglect of the mentally normal or superior. Few would say that an effort should be made to train subnormals for social leadership; it is clear that such individuals must remain followers. Whatever place such individuals are to occupy in the social order, it is apparent that some attention should be given to the training they can and should receive.

An attempt has been made to construct a curriculum for the mentally limited.[1] From the author's experience in training subnormals, she feels a "paucity of the materials of instruction in the literature on the subnormal," which "has seriously handicapped the special-class teacher" and which has led to unsuitable training for subnormal individuals (p. 1). To meet this "obvious need," the author set about "arranging a curriculum that should present a composite of the best practices of the best teachers . . . . and at the same time conform to the principles that psychologists agree should govern the training of the subnormal" (p. 1).

The book contains chapters on the following topics: pedagogical principles, daily program, character-training, citizenship, reading, language, spelling, pen-

[1] Helen Davis Whipple, *Making Citizens of the Mentally Limited:* A Curriculum for the Special Class. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1927. Pp. vi+374. $2.00.

manship, arithmetic, physical education, music, nature-study, gardening, manual arts, sewing, cooking, housekeeping, child care, projects, and pre-reading groups. Chapters are commonly divided into "Needs," "Methods," "Subject Matter," "Devices," and "Bibliography."

Except for a somewhat greater emphasis on drill and concrete material for subnormal groups, the reader is not struck by any essential difference between the curriculum as commonly outlined for normal children and that proposed for subnormal children. An idea which is repeated in several chapters is concisely expressed when the author says, "So far as instruction in traits and ideals is concerned, no differentiation in aims and objectives should be made between the normal and the subnormal" (p. 29). An equally concise statement of the same idea is made relative to the method of teaching music to subnormal pupils (p. 194).

Some students of the curriculum might question the soundness of the theory underlying certain aspects of the proposed curriculum. Thus, some may question a reducing of arithmetic to the bare essentials that have "proved of importance or indispensable value" to the teacher in her "life outside the classroom" (p. 142), particularly when it is considered important that subnormal children learn the "names and chief functions of bones, muscles, nerves" (p. 170), etc. Similarly, in an age of industrial specialization, many would question the author's recommendation to teach subnormal children cobbling, not to make "apprentices to cobblers but to enable them to keep their own shoes in good condition" (p. 267). The same applies to the recommendation to teach barbering. "Even if the pupils do not become apprentices to barbers, considering the size of the average family of subnormals, many quarters and fifty-cent pieces can be added to the family budget if a member of the household is competent to give the family haircuts" (p. 266). Certainly subnormals as well as normals would use the existing cobbling and barber shops rather than have the particular functions performed at home. Other students might decline to follow the author in listing "picking flowers" and "splitting wood" as means of gaining rhythmic interpretation in the teaching of music (p. 202).

A strong feature of the book is that it is specific and frequently gives useful "illustrative situations" for teaching the material at hand. Many of these illustrations seem workable. The author also includes extensive chapter bibliographies where considerable literature has appeared on the subject under discussion. Sources of supplementary materials are frequently indicated, and a general bibliography is presented at the end of the book. The large portion of the book devoted to training in mechanical arts and related topics is in sympathy with the common practice of directing subnormal pupils into these fields rather than into fields involving greater abstraction. However, the author does not give the reader a clear idea of where the subnormal individual could or should fit into society. Several chapters which deal with quite different topics begin by emphasizing the importance of the material of that particular chapter for the subnormal child. Whatever may be the stimulating effect of this em-

phasis on the reader during the first few chapters, it wears off before he reaches the end of the book and leaves him confused as to what the author thinks is most important. The book strikes the reader as another book on the curriculum under a slightly different title, in the preparation of which the "eclectic" (scissor-and-paste) method was prominent. Nevertheless, beginning teachers who are working with mentally deficient pupils will find in it a number of useful suggestions.

HAROLD H. PUNKE

The secondary-school curriculum.—Change may be a symptom of progress. However, whether a particular change denotes progress depends on the goal in mind. Hence, the fact that many changes have been made from time to time in the curriculum of the secondary school may or may not indicate progress, depending on the views of the individual. An opinion has been expressed which sets up as the function of the school the transmission of our social heritage to the oncoming generation and the preparation of that generation to contribute to the heritage before transmitting it to the succeeding generation. When the function of the school is viewed in this way, it becomes apparent that the school contributes to changes in the heritage on the one hand and that the school must itself be changed to transmit a changed heritage on the other hand. This unending change of the school in attempting to accomplish its purpose may be viewed as an evolution.

Our Evolving High School Curriculum[1] hopes to aid "the novice in curriculum thinking to understand somewhat more clearly what the present curriculum issues are and how they are being attacked" (p. iii). The material is treated in ten chapters. After a brief introductory chapter, the author presents a short chapter on "The Origin of the Curriculum." Chapter iii then gives a brief and stimulating review, from classical times to the latter part of the nineteenth century, of the "Historical Backgrounds" of present-day curriculums. The fourth chapter reviews criticisms of the curriculum made by Dewey, Eliot, Abraham Flexner, Nicholas Murray Butler, and others during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Chapters v–viii deal with educational aims and values. The author quotes extensively from the discussions of aims by other writers in the field and gives in considerable detail some well-known tabulations of objectives. He says, "Educational values can be determined only by an extensive and prolonged series of scientific experimentations" (p. 104). This statement raises the question of the capacity of science to determine values and of the need of a philosophy of life to give us our values or aims before science can help us achieve them. The author, however, does not concern himself to any great extent with the way in which values arise but discusses "direct" and "indirect" values and presents a category of values. After discussing values for several pages, he

[1] Calvin Olin Davis, *Our Evolving High School Curriculum.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1927. Pp. x+302. $2.00.

characterizes the significance of his own discussion by concluding that many important values "cannot be computed in any concrete terms" and that "the analyst of the curriculum is therefore left, in his discussion of values, almost where he began" (p. 148).

The last half of the book is made up of chapters ix and x, dealing respectively with "Administrative Aspects" of the curriculum and with "Some Comparative Curricular Statistics." Chapter ix presents several pages of illustrative material concerning the programs of study of certain experimental schools, that of the University High School of the University of Michigan being given most fully. Chapter x deals largely with a survey of curricular offerings in American high schools and includes an extensive presentation of data collected in studies made by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. In view of the availability of this survey material in the original publications, the reader may question the need of devoting a large part of the present book to a repetition of it.

The author's reaction to the material presented may not always be clear to "the novice in curriculum thinking." Numerous quotations or large amounts of tabular material are sometimes presented without any attempt to point out to the reader what the author feels to be the gist of the material. This defect is noticeable in chapter vii, "What the Curriculum Should Contain," and in chapter x, "Some Comparative Curricular Statistics." It is to a less extent apparent in chapter vi, "How To Determine Educational Objectives."

Regardless of the criticisms which have been made, the book will be useful to beginning students of education and to administrators who want a brief survey in one book of several aspects of the curriculum problem. Advanced students in the field will already have come in contact with much that the book contains.

HAROLD H. PUNKE

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